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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FIFTY-THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN

TORONTO

On the 14th, 15th and 16th April, 1914.



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1914.

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1910	F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., D.PAED.
1911	JOHN H. LAUGHTON.
1912	JAMES L. HUGHES, LL.D.
1913	C. A. MAYBERRY, LL.B.

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PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
Fifty-Third Annual Convention
OF THE
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY—TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO,
April 14th, 1914.

The Association met in Convocation Hall, President Mayberry in the chair. Rev. Dr. Burwash conducted the devotional exercises by reading the 19th Psalm and by leading in prayer.

Moved by William Scott, B.A., seconded by J. Dearness, M.A.,

That as the minutes have been printed and distributed among the members, they be considered as read and are hereby confirmed. Carried.

A communication from Mrs Orde-Marshall, Honorary Secretary of the League of Empire, was read. It is as follows:

“ 14th November, 1913.

“ Sir,—We are glad to be able to report to you that the first Annual Meeting of the Teachers' Associations throughout the Empire took place on the 19th July last, and that at this gathering was inaugurated the 'Imperial Union of Teachers.'

“ At the Conference in 1912 it was decided to hold annually in London a meeting of representatives of the Teachers' Associations throughout the Empire, and also that Conferences should take place periodically in such part of the Empire as might be convenient.

“ The next Annual Meeting will take place on July 18th, 1914, and the second meeting of the Imperial Conference of Teachers' Associations will take place in Toronto by invitation of the Government of Ontario. At the meeting last July the Minister of

Education for Ontario graciously came in person to present this invitation. The date of this Conference will be 1916, the time of year probably August.

"The definite programme for the Conference will be considered at the Annual Meeting next July and we should be very pleased if such members of the Ontario Educational Association as might be in England next summer could make it possible to be present. After the meeting on July 18th there will be a series of visits to interesting places and houses such as has taken place this year. Through the hospitality offered much may be seen which is not available to the general public.

"Three copies of the *Federal Magazine*, including a report of the meeting last July, are herewith forwarded for the information of your Committee.

"I have the honour to be,

"Sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"EDMOND MARSHALL;

"Hon. Secretary.

"R. W. Doan, Esq., General Secretary,
Ontario Educational Association."

The Secretary stated that this letter was read at the meeting of the Board of Directors on April 13th, and that said Board had appointed a Committee to deal with the matter.

The action of the Board of Directors was confirmed and Mr. Colbeck was requested to report to the Association.

The President announced that owing to the pressure of his legislative duties the Minister of Education could not be present at this meeting.

Dr. Colquhoun in the absence of the Minister of Education gave an address of welcome. (See page 73).

President Mayberry addressed the Association on "A Simplified School Programme." (See page 77).

Mr. William Scott, Chairman of the Superannuation Fund Committee, reported as follows:

The Superannuation Committee begs to report that at length their efforts to keep the matter of a pension scheme for teachers before the Minister of Education and the Government have met with success in so far that instructions have been issued to have a bill for the superannuation of teachers prepared for submission to the Legislature at its next session.

I move, seconded by Mr. Reed, that this report be received and adopted and that the present committee with its present executive be continued to act as an advisory body in case their assistance be required.

The report was adopted.

Mr. R. A. Gray gave a verbal report on the revision of the Constitution and By-Laws of the Association, and moved that the revised Constitution and By-Laws as submitted be adopted. Mr. W. F. Chapman seconded the motion, and the same was carried.

President Falconer, on behalf of the authorities of the University and of the staff, welcomed the members to the buildings and invited all present to a reception in the adjoining hall.

The President declared the meeting closed.

A large number of delegates attended the reception, which was held in the large room adjoining the Convocation Hall.

SECOND DAY—WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 8 p.m., President Mayberry in the chair.

Rev. James Buchanan conducted the devotional exercises.

A telegram from Mr. J. A. McLeod, President of Saskatchewan Educational Association, sending greetings and best wishes for a successful Convention, was read by the Secretary.

Mr. Colbeck reported on behalf of the League of Empire as follows:

“The Second Quadrennial Conference of the affiliated Teachers' Associations of the Empire conducted under the auspices of the League of Empire will be held in Toronto in 1916. This meeting is to be held here on the invitation of the Minister of Education for Ontario and under the auspices of his Department. The Canadian branch of the League of the Empire with his concurrence would suggest that the Board of Directors

of the Ontario Educational Association appoint a representative committee to co-operate with the Department in considering certain matters in connection with the programme. It is very desirable that some suggestions be prepared to submit to the meeting in London in July, 1914."

The report was adopted and referred to the Board of Directors.

Mrs. E. S. Acheson, Corresponding Secretary of the Dominion W.C.T.U., wrote asking that the Ontario Educational Association adopt a strong resolution in support of the prohibitory cigarette bill now before the Dominion House of Parliament.

The Secretary read the report of the Auditors. The report was adopted. (See page 72).

Dr. Henry F. Cope, of Chicago, addressed the Association on "Religious Education in the Light of a New Day." (See page 88).

Professor J. J. Findlay, of the University of Manchester, addressed the Association on "Labour and Learning." (See page 96).

The election of officers resulted as follows:

President - - - - W. J. Summerby, Russell.

General Secretary - - Robert Willson Doan, 216 Carlton St. Toronto.

Treasurer - - - - William J. Hendry, Toronto.

Moved by Mr. R. Alexander, seconded by Mr. William Scott,

That in the opinion of this Association it is expedient that the House of Commons should provide that no person, by himself, his agent, or otherwise, shall manufacture, sell, or give away any cigarettes, cigarette papers or wrappers, or any substitute therefor, or shall be in any way concerned in such manufacture, sale or distribution or authorize or permit the same; that no cigarettes, cigarette papers or wrappers shall be imported into Canada or entered for consumption therein, and that all cigarettes, cigarette papers or wrappers intended as such shall be subject to seizure by any officers of Customs or Inland Revenue, and that they with the packages in which they are contained shall be disposed of under regulations made by the Governor in Council.—Carried.

Principal Hutton addressed the Association on "The League of Empire," and extended an invitation from the Canadian Branch of the League to attend a reception at the close of this meeting.

Moved by R. W. Doan, seconded by Mr. John Dearness, That the next meeting of this Association be held during the Easter Holidays, 1915, and that with the permission of the University authorities the meeting be held in the University of Toronto buildings.—Carried.

That the thanks of this meeting be tendered to Dr. Colquhoun, Dr. Cope and Professor Findlay for the inspiring addresses which they have delivered during the sessions of the Convention, and to President Mayberry for the courteous and able manner in which he has discharged the duties of President of the Association during the year. The President-elect put the motion, which was carried.

After the singing of the National Anthem the Association adjourned.

After the close of the meeting a large number of the members of the Association accepted the invitation of the Canadian Branch of the League of Empire to a reception. Among those who gave the reception were Mrs. H. S. Strathy and Mrs. H. H. Dewart.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The College and High School Department met in the West Hall of the Main Building of the University of Toronto at 2.15 p.m., the Chairman, Mr. R. A. Gray, presiding.

The minutes of the two sessions of 1913, as printed in the annual report of the Department, were confirmed.

The Chairman then gave his inaugural address on "Some Problems of Secondary Education in Ontario."

Professor Findlay, of the University of Manchester, gave a short, pithy address on the question of Secondary Education in England, prefacing his remarks by the observation that to a visitor from England the points discussed by Mr. Gray seemed strangely familiar. Tracing the history of Secondary Education, he showed that it was the result of a demand of the middle-class people for a higher culture. It was based originally, how-

ever, on the idea of excluding some and of giving to others a higher learning. Modern democracy claims the high school, and claims the right of everyone to this training. In the opinion of the speaker, the problem is to be solved by a movement in two directions: (1) the application of a scientific study of the system, in which emphasis will be laid, not on curricula, but on the needs of the corporate student body; (2) the providing of a proper training for the pupil from 14 to 18 years of age who may be unfit for, or who may not wish, the usual High School course. In order to fit the boy or girl to take a proper part in the nation's work, control and oversight should be maintained, and an opportunity afforded the pupil to follow a course that would be most beneficial to himself and to the community. He also explained that the only effective way in which education could be continued up to the age of 18 years and while the boy or girl is employed in earning a livelihood, is by means of legislation compelling employers to permit special time to be given for that purpose.

Dean Coleman, of Queen's University, as chairman of the sub-committee on the Programme of Secondary Studies, stated that a report on the relation of secondary to primary education in the United States, France and England had been prepared which was too lengthy to read in full at the meeting.

It was then moved by Dr. Alexander, seconded by Mr. Gundry, that this report and the Chairman's address be published in the Annual Proceedings.—Carried.

It was moved by Mr. Levan, seconded by Dr. Strang, that the Minister of Education be asked to publish and distribute this report in the interests of the teachers.—Carried.

Dr. Alexander then presented the report of the special committee, appointed last year to consider the programme of secondary studies, as follows:—

“Your committee, appointed at the meeting of March 25th, 1913, to consider and report on the programme of studies in the secondary schools of the Province, beg to report as follows:

“Reaffirming the opinion expressed by the College and High School Department at the annual meeting last year, that by reason of the increasing congestion and complexity of the programme of Secondary Schools the effectiveness of the work of the teacher is being impaired and the energy of the pupil dissipated over too

wide a range of subjects, your committee makes the following recommendations:—

“(1). That the Department of Education should amend its regulations so as to make it possible to begin the study of languages at least two years earlier than at present.

“(2) (a) That the High School courses in History should be reduced and adjusted to the age and capacity of the students.

“(b) That the courses should include one division of the subject and not more than one examination in each of the Lower, Middle and Upper Schools.

“(3.) That Oral Reading should be taught in the Lower School, as it is at present in the Middle and Upper Schools, only in connection with Literature.

“(4.) That the Departmental Regulations as to the courses of study should be amended to read: ‘Spelling and Writing shall be optional in the High Schools.’

“(5.) That the Middle and Upper School courses for teachers and the corresponding courses for matriculants should be brought into closer harmony.

“(6.) That at Matriculation, General Proficiency Scholarships should be awarded in not more than three departments.

“(7.) (a) That Chemistry be omitted from the curriculum in the Lower School.

“(b) That there be no inspection of note-books in the case of subjects in which there is an examination.

“(c) That the University require, as a condition for entrance into any Special Course in Science, Honours at Matriculation in the corresponding scientific subject or subjects.

“(8) That the amount of work in Art on the High School curriculum be reduced.”

It was moved by Mr. Hogarth, seconded by Dr. Strang, that the report be received and discussed clause by clause.

This was done, and, as there were no amendments, it was moved by Dr. Alexander, seconded by Dr. Wallace, that the report as a whole be adopted.—Carried.

It was moved by the Secretary, seconded by Professor Macpherson, that a vote of thanks be tendered to Dr. Alexander and to Dr. Needler, for their arduous work as chairman and secretary of the committee.—Carried.

It was moved by Professor Grant, seconded by the Secretary, that the committee be instructed to present the report at once, if possible, to the Superintendent of Education.—Carried.

On motion of Professor Milner, seconded by Professor Needler, the committee were instructed to continue the work during the coming year.—Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. C. FERGUSON, *Secretary*.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The second session of the department was held this afternoon in the West Hall, Mr. R. A. Gray being in the chair.

The minutes of the preceding meeting were read and confirmed.

The election of officers for the year 1915, resulted as follows:

Chairman - - - - Professor G. H. Needler.

Vice-Chairman - - - A. H. McDougall, B.A., LL.D.

Secretary - - - - W. C. Ferguson, B.A., University Schools.

Directors - - - - H. W. Bryan, M.A. (Classics), Arthur Smith, B.A. (Science), W. J. Loughheed, M.A. (Mathematics), R. H. Eldon, B.A. (Commercial).

Dr. Alexander reported that the Committee on the Programme of Secondary Schools had interviewed the Superintendent of Education and presented the resolutions passed yesterday. Dr. Seath stated that the matter would receive his attention.

Professor Sandiford then addressed the meeting on the subject of "The Education of the Adolescent." (For full report see page 107).

At the conclusion of his address, the Chairman welcomed the members of the Trustees Department who came to hear the address of Dr. Merchant, and invited their Chairman, Rev. James Buchanan, to occupy a seat on the platform.

Dr. Merchant then delivered his address on "Some Phases of Industrial and Technical Education." He spoke as follows:

“ Technical and Industrial Education must be based on the foundation of a thorough elementary training. At present a large proportion of those entering the industries drop out of school at the earlier stages. Hence the first requirement is to secure a more complete Public School education for those who are to enter industrial life.

“ The Public School course should be followed by a State-supported system of Industrial and Technical Schools. The necessity for such a system is generally admitted. It is a question upon which both capital and labour are agreed.

“ The question whether it is the duty of the State to provide Industrial and Technical Education may be argued from a variety of standpoints. Private enterprise can never be sufficient to organize a comprehensive system adapted to all the varied requirements of modern industrial life. The State has already committed itself to Vocational Education in supporting professional schools of medicine, engineering, pedagogy, etc., and industrial workers have equal rights with the professional classes to a course of training to meet the needs of their vocations. Conservation is a practical duty of the State. Our chief national resource is our people, and we must recognize the claims for conservation as they apply to personality as well as to material resources.

“ Plans for a system of Vocational Schools should include provisions for all typical occupations and should provide for both day and evening schools. The evening schools are important because they afford adults opportunities for acquiring skill in trades and for taking academic and technical courses; but the chief educational necessity at present is the organization of industrial schools to take charge of pupils between the ages of fourteen and sixteen to give them a bias towards a vocation and a basal preparation for it.

“ The Provincial Government in passing the Industrial Education Act has provided the machinery for Industrial and Technical Education, but other conditions must also be fulfilled. The necessities and possibilities of the situation must be more fully recognized by the public at large. Buildings and equipment are required. A body of especially trained teachers is needed, and after all these have been secured, means must be taken to secure an attendance. It would appear that compulsory attendance

through adolescence is necessary for carrying out effectually any comprehensive plans for the education of the masses."

In an appreciative address Rev. Mr. Buchanan expressed the thanks of the Trustees Department to Dr. Merchant for his excellent lecture and to this Department for their courtesy in arranging for the joint meeting.

Mr. Gray replied briefly on behalf of the College and High School Department, and added their thanks to that already conveyed to Dr. Merchant.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. C. FERGUSON, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The meeting opened at 11 a.m., Professor Horning in the chair. Professor C. E. Auger gave an address on "Culture and the Modern Languages," and Professor DeChamp, one in French on "L'Alsace-Lorraine dans le roman contemporain."

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

At a joint meeting with the English and History Section the following programme was given: "The Shakespeare Stage," by Professor McNeill; "The Most Modern English Drama," by Professor Horning; "John Galsworthy," by Miss B. Ketcheson; "John Masefield," by Miss W. L. Colbeck.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH.

Mr. George Readdie read a paper on "The Intensive Study of German," relating his experiences in Berlin, Germany. Dr. Georg Kartzke, Oberlehrer in the Albrecht Duerer Oberrealschule, Berlin, and temporary Lecturer in University College, gave an address in German on "Die Lehrer an den preussischen Schulen." Dr. Kartzke was elected an Honorary Life Member of the Association.

The following officers for 1915 were elected:

<i>President</i>	- - -	A. J. Husband.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- -	Miss M. E. T. Addison.
<i>Sec.-Treasurer</i>	- -	Professor A. E. Lang, Victoria College, Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - -	Misses S. Bristol, L. L. Jones, S. E. Marty, Messrs. F. H. Clarke. L. E. Horning, W. Williams.

MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The Science Section of the Ontario Educational Association met in the Biological Building, Wednesday, April 14th, 1914, President Pearson in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The President's address was on the subject "Agriculture in the Schools." He gave statistics showing the desirability of having a larger and more enlightened rural population. He combated the statement made in another section that the farmers themselves were indifferent to school training in Agriculture for their children. His own experience was that the pupils themselves would give up play to do experiments in milk testing, etc. Professor McCready, of the Ontario Agricultural College, followed with an exposition of the course in Agriculture in the schools, before the combined sections of Natural Science and Continuation Schools. He expressed the opinion that the true function of rural Continuation Schools was not preparation of school teachers and matriculation candidates. He explained how the course outlined could be worked out in detail, particularly how it could be adapted to local conditions.

Mr. W. B. Werdenhammer gave a very eloquent appreciation of the value of the subject.

Dr. C. Gordon Hewitt, Dominion Entomologist, gave an illustrated address on the House-fly, which contained much original work hitherto unpublished. He stated that the problem of fly elimination was merely one of education, and that the Public Schools of our country were a most excellent ground to educate

the coming generation on the evils of the fly-pest and on the proper means of eradicating it. He was convinced that the practical results of flyswatting campaigns, which have been carried on by some of our newspapers, are useless as fly-reducers. In one particular city, the number thus killed in one season, though apparently enormous, was estimated to be just about equal to the number generated in one manure heap. He stated that there had recently been discovered a feature which makes the insect even more dangerous than we had supposed, that flies have the habit of vomiting and that the matter so discharged is full of disease germs, this dangerous aspect far outweighing any danger from germ-distribution from the dirty feet of the creatures. "The fly serves a most useful purpose and that purpose is to indicate unsanitary conditions." Tests show that the insects may fly half a mile from their breeding grounds and that germs may retain their vitality for two days in the insect's body. Flies in congested unsanitary districts carry many times the number of germs that flies in clean districts do. He advocated the segregation of livery stables in cities and the removal of manure from the neighborhood of dairies and kitchens in the country, and generally better disposal of garbage, preferably by incineration.

THURSDAY, APRIL 15TH.

At 9 a.m. on Thursday, the Section continued its session in the Biological Building.

Moved by Dr. Cosens, seconded by J. R. Moore, that a vote of thanks be tendered Dr. Hewitt for his interesting lecture.—Carried.

Moved by A. P. Gundry, and carried, that the chairman and secretary be a committee to draft a letter to Mrs. R. K. Duncan, expressing the sympathy of the Association on the death of Dr. Duncan on Feb. 18th.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>Hon. President</i>	- - -	Dr. Kenrick.
<i>President</i>	- - - -	F. J. Johnston.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	F. P. Gavin.
<i>Sec.-Treasurer</i>	- - -	Arthur Smith, 52 Parkway Ave.
<i>Council</i>	- - - - -	J. B. Turner, J. R. Moore, G. A. Carefoot, T. J. Ivey, Mr. Robins, P. C. MacLaurin.

Representative to College and High School Department—
Arthur Smith.

J. B. Turner, in the report of the Committee on Regulations, stated that, in certain details, the regulations as printed were not the same as recommended by the committee—notably in the sections as to outdoor work and microscopic bacterial cultures. He advocated that they be given a fair trial. On motion the committee was appointed for another year.

Dr. Kenrick in an interesting address showed up inaccuracies and inconsistencies in the authorized text-book in Chemistry. On motion of Arthur Smith, seconded by A. P. Gundry, a committee consisting of Dr. Kenrick, G. A. Cornish, F. J. Johnston, J. B. Turner and Arthur Smith with power to add to their number was appointed to consider the present authorized text-book in Chemistry and to report at next meeting.

In the Physics Building Dr. John Satterly gave some interesting experiments in Mechanics and Heat. The hearty thanks of the meeting was presented by the President.

The afternoon session was held in the University Schools. On motion of Mr. Pearson, the Secretary was instructed to secure for next meeting a man of outstanding continental reputation as a popular lecturer.

Messrs. G. A. Cornish and G. A. Cline had gone to great trouble setting up apparatus which was new to many present. The apparatus shown included an aluminium-iron rectifier, a dead-beat galvanometer, a water air-condenser and air exhauster, a coal-oil blast lamp. Many experiments illustrating the uses to which the various pieces could be put, were performed.

Mr. M. B. Hastings of the Weston Company, gave an address on "Electric Measuring Apparatus." He had ammeters and voltmeters present and explained their ranges, merits and the methods of using them.

ARTHUR SMITH, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The Classical Section met in Room 57, University College, at 10 a.m., Wednesday, April 15th, with the President, Professor Langford, in the chair. As the Secretary was unable to be present, Mr. J. D. Morrow was appointed Acting Secretary.

When the minutes of the last meeting had been read and adopted, the President gave an address whose brevity he defended on the ground of the length of the programme. Professor G. W. Johnston then gave his paper on "Latin in the Secondary Schools." He dealt with the value of Latin to the average pupil, and suggested practicable improvements.

Possibly one of his most helpful hints was embodied in the description he gave of various readers suitable for second year pupils in Latin. Among these books was "Caesar in Britain and Belgium," published by the Cambridge University Press.

Next came a discussion on "How to Increase the Popularity and Utility of the Study of Classics in Ontario." This was led by Messrs. C. B. Sissons, J. O. Carlisle, and L. C. Smith. A valuable exchange of ideas took place, which showed that the teaching of classics in Ontario does not suffer from stagnant uniformity of method.

Prof. J. C. Robertson briefly discussed the Normal Entrance and Junior Matriculation papers on Latin, with particular reference to the latter. The impression left was that a fairly high standard will be required in future at these examinations.

The Executive then brought in the following report on the matter of reducing the amount of Latin to be read for Honour Matriculation:

"We, your local Executive, to whom was referred the question of reducing the amount of work to be read in Latin for Honour Matriculation, beg leave to recommend as follows:—

"(1) That Vergil be no longer prescribed for Honour Matriculation.

"(2) That of the Odes of Horace to be read for this examination, fifteen be read every year and fifteen of thirty others be

read in alternate years, it being understood that the amount of Horace for any one year shall not exceed one thousand lines.

“ J. H. MILLS,

“ For local Executive.”

It was moved by Mr. Mills and seconded by Mr. Glassey, that this report be adopted. Before the discussion was finished the Section adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH.

The Section met in Room 11 at 10 a.m.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

<i>Hon. President</i>	- - -	Dr. N. Burwash, Victoria University.
<i>President</i>	- - - -	J. H. Mills, M.A., Parkdale C.I.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Dr. Kirkwood, Trinity University.
<i>Sec.-Treasurer</i>	- - - -	Chas. L. Barnes, Jarvis C. I.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Miss I. K. Cowan, B.A., Barrie; Professor DeWitt, Victoria University; D. A. Glassey, M.A., Harbord C. I.; J. D. Morrow, B.A., Humberside C. I.; H. W. Bryan, M.A., Renfrew C. I.; W. J. Salter, B.A., Woodstock C. I.

The programme was then resumed. Prof. W. S. Milner dealt at length with “ The Most Disputed Sentence in the Classics,” and threw much light on the darkness of doubt involving the famous statement of Aristotle.

An interesting paper on “ Platonism in the Sixteenth Century Sonnet ” was read by Mr. C. W. Stanley.

The last item was an illustrated lecture on “ Rome from the Village to the Imperial City,” by Prof. N. W. DeWitt. He made very clear the topography of the Eternal City, and in this enterprising way concluded a very instructive programme.

The report brought in by the Executive was then taken up again, and adopted. As there was no further business the Section then adjourned for the year.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The Mathematical and Physical Section met in Room 8, with President T. A. Kirkconnell in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The President addressed the section on "Avocations of Mathematicians," in which he urged all present to pursue diligently some subject outside their regular daily work in order to keep the mind keen and alert.

Professor Findlay, of MacMaster University, gave a paper on "Ratio and Proportion," in which he suggested that since Ratio is the relation between two or more concrete magnitudes and since we always think of this relation in the abstract, it would be preferable to indicate this relation by the fraction form.

Mr. R. N. Merritt then followed with an admirable paper on "The Relative Importance of Principles and Exercises in Algebra, with Application to Examination Papers." In this paper Mr. Merritt strongly urged that pupils be given an opportunity to discover the principles underlying the solution of problems and that examination papers be framed so that due importance may be given to the pupils' knowledge of the principles involved in the solution of questions asked.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

Mr. Kirkconnell took the chair at 9.45 a.m., and the following members were elected to office:

Hon. President - - - T. A. Kirkconnell, B.A.

President - - - A. M. Overholt, M.A.

Vice-President - - - R. Wightman, B.A.

Secretary-Treasurer - - W. J. Lougheed, M.A., Jarvis Col.
Inst., Toronto.

Councillors - - - W. L. Sprung, B.A.; R. Gurlay,
B.A.; T. Kennedy, M.A.; W. R.
Bocking, M.A.; G. F. Arm-
strong, B.A.

After the election of officers Prof. D. Buchanan, of Queen's University, gave a paper on "The Physical Universe and the Ancients," in which he traced the gradual development of the Science of Astronomy from the Mythological Age to the time of Newton.

Dr. I. J. Birchard then gave an interesting paper on "Some Experiences as Scholar and Teacher," in which he described the difficulties encountered in securing an education fifty years ago. He also contrasted the honor paid to the successful student of fifty years ago and that paid to the present scholarship student, much to the detriment of the present day appreciation of successful effort at school and college.

This paper was followed by an address on "Alternative Solutions," by Mr. E. J. Wethey. Mr. Wethey showed by illustrations that as the pupils' knowledge of a subject increased new solutions of problems already worked might be given.

Owing to the lateness of the hour, the paper by Mr. W. R. Bocking was not given.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. J. LOUGHEED, *Sec.-Treas.*

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The Commercial Section of the O. E. A. met in Room 19, University College, with the President, Mr. W. E. Evans, B.A., in the chair.

Upon motion the minutes of last year's meeting were taken as read.

The following appointments were then made:

Nominating Committee—The President, the Secretary, Miss A. A. Boyd, Miss G. M. Watterworth and Mr. Walker.

Question Drawer Committee—Messrs. A. Shultis, and A. F. Birchard.

Press Reporter—Mr. G. M. James.

The President, Mr. W. E. Evans, B.A., then gave a very interesting address on the "Status of the Commercial Department in

the School." Mr. Evans thought that it was apparent to all conversant with the trend of affairs in the High Schools of the province that the status of the Commercial teacher and his work was improving, this being borne out by the fact that the salaries in this department were now on a par with those in any of the others. Formerly a commercial specialist was regarded as of an order inferior to the heads of the other departments; but since then the value of the work has been impressed upon the public and the teaching world alike. The present standing should not only be maintained, but improved and it was the duty of the commercial teacher to seize upon every opportunity to expand the scope of the work although not doing it at the expense of the other departments. He maintained that the function of an education was not so much how to make a living as how to make a life. For this the mental powers must be trained and quickened.

He said that the subjects used for that purpose at present were satisfactory, but asked if anyone would maintain that the careful study and practice of stenography was less effective in training the mind than Latin or Greek; or if the mastery of the principles of accountancy and the adaptation of these to suit the vicissitudes of modern business were of any less value than mathematics or science. Admitting that the subjects now in use would train the mind as well as the ones just set forth would it not be better to use those whose practical value was the greatest?

Mr. Evans then pointed out that the Department of Education had lately taken the subject of bookkeeping off the lower school examination for entrance to Normal School. He thought that it was not fair to send out teachers to the public schools who were unable to teach the elements of simple bookkeeping and that he would therefore strongly recommend that bookkeeping should be transferred to the middle school where it could be made an alternative with science. The outline for the teacher's course would then be:

Lower School—Subjects: Oral Reading, Writing, Spelling, Art, Elementary Science, Zoology, Botany, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, British and Canadian History, English Grammar, Arithmetic.

Middle School—Subjects: Algebra, Geometry, English Literature and Composition, British, Canadian, and Ancient History.

Physics, Chemistry, or Bookkeeping, Shorthand and Typewriting, Commercial Law, Business Forms.

In the Upper School the Commercial Option could be continued along the lines laid down for third and fourth year commercial classes, he thought. Such a plan would provide the coming teacher with a course more useful and practical than the present study of science did. He admitted that a great deal of work could be covered in the middle school in science, but he thought it questionable whether it added enough to the lower school work in this subject to make it useful. With this option Bookkeeping could be made broad enough for the teachers to cope with any case arising in town or rural business. Shorthand theory with practice at sixty words a minute and Business Law and Forms as in the present commercial course could be given.

Another plan that would tend to raise the status of the commercial teacher would be, in his opinion, that the examination papers for the Commercial Diploma be set by the Dept. of Education and read by examiners as was now done in the other subjects.

Miss M. M. Campbell then gave a paper on "The Teaching of Typewriting." To turn out efficient typewriters in a year's time means that typewriting cannot be made a side-issue. As it is the preliminary instruction that counts for future success, the subject must from the first be taught carefully, the beginner watched closely, and the work corrected daily. This necessitates the presence of the teacher in the typewriting-room several periods a week.

Proper equipment is advocated, such as tables of different heights, or better, revolving chairs with adjustable backs, notebook rests, charts on a level with the eye, the glass partitions between the typewriting and commercial classroom. Further to ensure the use of the touch system, key-board shields, or covers that answer the purpose are absolutely indispensable.

The points to emphasize in the preliminary instruction are: erect pose of the body, correct position of the wrists, the curve to the fingers and relaxation of the muscles, keeping of the hands close to the keyboard and the acquiring of a quick, light, snappy touch. Very little about the machine should be taught at the lesson, but before graduating the pupil should have a thorough knowledge of the machine and its attachments. Have the pupils proceed slowly but with uniform speed. Insist on accuracy.

Honor lists and blindfold tests aid in acquiring the latter, and also add variety and create enthusiasm.

Some degree of skill in both typewriting and stenography should be attained before the two are co-ordinated. The student should have impressed on him the necessity of being accurate and neat in his work, as it will be by his typewritten letter that his employer will judge him.

In the afternoon, a joint meeting with the Manual Arts Section was held, when the following very profitable papers were given:

President's Address—R. F. Fleming, Ottawa Normal School.

"Art Appreciation," Miss F. M. King, and "Freehand Perspective," S. B. Hatch.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

The meeting was opened at 9.30 a.m. with the President, Mr. W. E. Evans, B.A., in the chair. The following questions were very ably discussed:

- (a) Making Commercial Geography an Examination Subject.
- (b) Methods for Inducing the Best Work in Bookkeeping.
- (c) The Advisory Board.
- (d) Lectures from Business Men.
- (e) How to Make Commercial Law Interesting.

Then followed a paper on "Auditing of Books and Accounts of a Fraternal Insurance Society," by A. Shultis, Esq., C.A.

The accounting system of a Fraternal Insurance Society does not present many features of a particularly complex character. Like that of all insurance companies the business of such a society is regarded as dealing only with cash receipts and payments, and the entries are made in the various books in accordance with this theory. Fraternal Insurance Societies receive cash from their members in small monthly payments and provide for them in return protection against death, accident or sickness. When these monthly payments, called assessments, are overdue no entry is made to show they have not been paid. This information is evidenced by a lack of a credit entry on the books. Likewise on the death of a member, the society becomes liable, but no entry is made until the cheque is sent to the beneficiary and the claim is fully settled. It is evident, therefore, as far as the books are concerned, everything is ignored except cash transactions.

The daily receipts are first recorded in the general Cash Book, after which they are deposited in the Bank to the credit of the Society concerned.

The transactions between the various Courts and Head Office are recorded by means of the Head Office System, and the Head Office contains these records in more or less condensed form according to the kind of system in use.

Most Societies, I believe, have a resident Auditor who checks over the Cash Receipts each day as received, after a record of them has been entered into the Cash Book by the Cashiers, and compares the same with the returns or reports from the different Branch Societies called Courts, Camps, etc.

If any of these Branch Societies are in arrears, they are so notified, and if such arrears are not paid within the time specified in the Constitution of the Order, such Branches are suspended and can be reinstated only according to the rules and regulations of the Society concerned.

In auditing the Cash Receipts, the office assistant in the auditor's department calls off from the Cash Book the name of Court and the various amounts received as shown in the separate columns, then stamps the voucher number in the book, and also upon the report received from that Court, while the Auditor compares these amounts with those given on the report. The Cash Book is then added to see if the total corresponds with the amount deposited in the Bank for that day. The auditor then examines each report to see if the various amounts received correspond with what should be received according to the number of members in good standing in that Court. He then initials each report and the duplicate deposit slip.

These Cash Receipts are then entered into the Treasurer's Cash Books, of which there may be several.

In auditing the High Treasurer's Cash Books, one auditor calls off the amounts first from the duplicate deposit slips which he has previously initiated. Second, from the monthly statement received from the District High Court, or third, from the Debenture Book the various amounts which should be recorded upon the Debit side while the other auditor places his cheque mark opposite the amount so called. The Cash Receipts are then checked off with the deposits in the Bank Pass Book, which completes the audit of Income Side of Cash Book.

Considerably more work is involved in auditing the Cash Payments, most of which is usually done before the payment is made. In the case of a death claim, or sick or funeral benefit claim, the application attached is submitted to the auditor, who examines the same and if found to be in order initials the claim and the cheque, after which the cheque is signed by the proper officials and remitted to the beneficiary.

If, however, the claim is not complete, owing to the lack of proof or lack of a declaration in any material point, the claim is held until such information or declaration is received.

Similarly, in payments from the general fund the account is presented to the auditor, who compares it with the Order Book; also sees that it is O.K.'d by those who are authorized to do so, and otherwise satisfies himself that the articles named in the account have been received or the services rendered, after which he initials the account. The cheque is then made out and returned to the auditor for his initials.

Those cheques that are paid are returned each half month by the Bank, and are again checked over by the Auditors, first with the several Bank Pass Books, secondly with the Treasurer's Books, at the same time the cheques receive the Auditor's stamp and are then filed away for future reference if necessary.

Th other payments from the various funds will be for Investments. The investments of a society will depend upon its by-laws or constitutions. Most fraternal societies invest to a greater or lesser extent in Bonds or Debentures, of which there may be several kinds, viz:

1. Straight Term.

This bond is paid at the end of a term of years, and can be described by writing in figures the date on which the principal is paid.

2. Serial Bond

This bond is payable in equal payments of principal, with interest in addition. It can be described as so many instalments of principal, with interest in addition. Western School Bonds, Village and Rural Municipalities are usually issued in this way. They may be issued without coupons, or with coupons for interest only, or with coupons for principal and interest combined, similar to annuity forms described below.

3. Annuity Bond.

These bonds are payable in equal, annual instalments of Interest and Principal, and can be described briefly as so many instalments. In this case you can buy only the face value in one block.

4. Instalment Bonds with Coupons for Interest.

These bonds are figured precisely the same way as the annuity, but each maturity of principal carries its own interest. Therefore, each maturity is like a separate issue in itself. These bonds should be described as 1911-20, or 1911-30, etc., indicating that the maturities play an important part in the division. In this case, the denominations are the maturities, unless such maturities are split up.

5. Instalment Bonds with Coupons for Interest and Principal.

These bonds are issued for convenience in dividing an annuity bond. The bond portion is worthless in so far as redemption is concerned, but the coupons form an annuity. They can be described like the annuity bonds as so many instalments, but the denominations here play an important part, as the bonds are divisible according to their face amount. In this case you buy by denominations which are fixed at pleasure. The amount of the coupons is easily found as it bears the same proportions to the total annuity as the denominations bear to the face of all the bonds.

At the end of each quarter it is the auditor's duty to see that the Securities are intact and properly accounted for.

When an Auditor takes upon himself the responsibility for the first time, it will be necessary to examine every security to see it is in order and the proper number of coupons are attached. Where the securities amount to some four or five million dollars, it is unnecessary to examine the total amount each quarter, if some system is adopted by which the auditor knows the securities have not been tampered with since his last audit. This may be done by placing the securities in numbered bags, then having the bags sealed by means of a lead seal upon which will be stamped the auditor's initials, the stamp then being kept under lock and key by the auditor. A list of the different securities in the different bags is kept by the auditor, then only such bags as it is found necessary to open during the quarter, will require to be audited. These securities are checked over with the Debenture Book and the auditor's quarterly or yearly statement.

It may also be part of the auditor's duties to see that the officials are regularly and properly bonded.

Time will not permit the going into detail for the auditing of the Ledgers. It may be found necessary for the Auditor to keep a Cash Book of his own for the various amounts received for the General Fund, then to check the Subordinate Court Ledger with this Cash Book.

The General Ledger is used by the Auditor in making out his quarterly and yearly reports, which are checked with the Treasurer's books. The balance from the General Ledger for the different funds must correspond with the balances of the corresponding funds in the Treasurer's accounts.

Mr. J. J. Bailey gave a very instructive paper on "Writing," in which he emphasized the need of every Commercial teacher being able to write well so that the pupils would be more interested in the subject. He also spoke of the necessity of using suitable materials for producing the best writing. Mr. Bailey favoured a holder with rubber or cork grip so that the fingers could get a proper hold on the pen-holder, a Sprott No. 2 pen point for the First and Second Year students and a finer point for Third Year pupils. He also stated the need for a suitable Text Book on Penmanship but stated it could not be made to pay as the publishers were not willing to print such a book at a moderate price and teachers would not pay a high price for it.

The election of officers then followed, the following being elected:

<i>President</i>	- - - -	W. E. Evans, B.A., Galt.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Miss S. Blyth.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	W. J. O'Brien, Box 936, Orillia.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Miss G. M. Watterworth, Miss M. M. Campbell, Messrs. D. M. Walker, Wm. Ward, B.A., and J. J. Bailey.

Representative to the College and High School Department
R. H. Eldon, B.A.

W. J. O'BRIEN, *Secretary-Treasurer.*

*MINUTES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS'
SECTION.*

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The High School Principals' Section met in the West Hall at 10 a.m., President Dickson in the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting were taken as read and adopted.

On motion of Mr. Whyte and Mr. Massey, the Secretary was appointed press representative.

The President appointed Messrs. Mayberry, Christie and Massey a nominating committee.

The President then presented the report of the committee appointed to request a curtailment of the Lower School programme. This included the recommendations made by the committee to the Minister of Education and is published elsewhere in this volume.

A letter was read from Dr. Seath, Superintendent of Education, asking the opinion of the section as to whether History should be an examination subject at the junior High School Entrance Examination. After considerable discussion it was moved by Mr. Gundry, seconded by Mr. Murray, that the discussion be left over until the Wednesday session. This motion was carried.

The discussion of the new regulations was then taken up.

Mr. W. N. Bell, criticised the requirement of collections in elementary Science and while commending some of the new features of the work in Art, deplored the fact that the requirements in this subject had not been reduced.

Mr. Murray thought that the requirements in History should be further reduced and that provision should be left for beginning Geometry in Form I.

Mr. Whyte thought the prescription of work in History should be more definite.

Mr. Dolan held that in history provision should be made for progression in the work; that Canadian History should be finished in the Public Schools, British History in the lower forms of the High Schools and ancient History in the Middle School.

Mr. Gundry, speaking of the course in Agriculture, expressed the opinion that the course would not be popular with the pupils until life on the farm became more attractive.

Mr. Burt next discussed the question "Can the Influence of the High School Principals be made to Count for Something in the Decisions of the Department of Education?"

To achieve this end he said three conditions were necessary. Their resolutions must be

- (a) Consistent one with another.
- (b) Unanimous, and
- (c) Urged with insistence.

Furthermore, the High School men should work in conjunction with the university men.

The meeting then adjourned until Wednesday.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

The Section reassembled at 9.30 a.m.

Mr. Christie presented the report of the Nominating Committee, recommending the following gentlemen for office next year.

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	F. P. Garvin, Windsor.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	R. D. Coutts, Georgetown.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	G. F. Rogers, H. R. Kenner, and T. Murray.

On motion of Mr. Christie, seconded by Mr. Massey, these were declared elected.

The discussion of the question submitted by the Superintendent of Education was then resumed. Messrs. Bonis, Graham, Gavin, Coutts, Dr. Thompson and others took part. Finally the following motion, moved by Mr. W. N. Bell, seconded by Mr. Gavin, was carried: "Inasmuch as local Boards may, under present regulations, hold an examination in History where the subject appears to be neglected, we are of opinion that the present freedom of action should be retained."

Mr. A. W. Massey then read a paper on "American and Canadian Schools; a comparison of their courses and timetables." This paper in abridged form appears elsewhere in this volume.

Mr. Langford discussed the working of sec. 46 (1) (a) of the High Schools Act, showing that the authority it gave to the County Inspector was liable to be abused, and holding that county centres

for the Entrance Examination should be affiliated with the High School to which they are nearest.

Mr. Coombs and others next discussed the clauses of the High School Act relating to County liability. The speakers felt that the counties should bear a greater share than they do of the cost of High School Education.

The meeting then adjourned for the year.

R. D. COUTTS, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto.

The meeting was called to order at 10.15 a.m., Mr. John Rogers, President, in the chair.

Mr. Samuel Nethercott read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Chas. G. Fraser was elected Minute Secretary.

The minutes as printed in last year's Report of the Proceedings were taken as read and confirmed.

The following communications of the year were presented:—

1. From the following Teachers' Institutes contributing these amounts to the Public School Department of the O.E.A.:—

Algoma (E.)	\$2 00	Hastings (N.)	3 00
Brant	5 00	Huron (W.)	5 00
Bruce (E.)	5 00	Kingston	5 00
Carleton	2 00	Lanark (W.)	2 00
Essex (S.)	2 00	Lanark (E.)	5 00
Frontenac	5 00	Leeds (W.)	5 00
Grey (N.)	5 00	Lennox & Addington	5 00
Grey (S.)	5 00	Lincoln	2 00
Halton	2 00	Middlesex (W.)	2 00

Muskoka (E.)	2 00	St. Catharines	2 00
Northumberland & Durham II.	\$7 00	Toronto	50 00
Northumberland & Durham III.	2 00	Victoria	5 00
Oxford	5 00	Waterloo	4 00
Ontario (N.)	2 00	Wellington (N.)	2 00
Parry Sound (E.)	7 00	Wellington (S.)	4 00
Parry Sound (W.) ...	2 00	Simcoe (E.)	5 00
Peel	7 00	Member	1 00
Prince Edward	5 00		
		Total	\$179 00

2. *From the County Institutes*—The correspondence for the year and the resolutions of provincial importance passed thereat.

3. *From the County Institutes*—Regarding the resolutions of our Department for 1913.

4. From the officials of the various Departments and Sections of the O. E. A. for 1913-14.

5. From the Minister of Education and the various officials of the Department of Education for 1913-14.

6. The correspondence of the committee on the new course of study during the year.

7. From South Wellington Teachers' Institute criticising the working of this Department.

8. From the Guelph Teachers' Institute criticising the work of this Department and sending notice of refraining from sending delegates.

These communications were received and the last two were warmly discussed; the imputations therein contained being strongly resented.

The report of the Secretary was then presented, showing the work of the Executive for the year. The report was adopted.

The Report of the Treasurer was then presented showing:

RECEIPTS.

Balance on hand from 1912-1913	\$41 00
Members' Fees	205 50
Contributions from Local Associations	179 00
Total Receipts	\$425 50

DISBURSEMENTS.

Members Fees to the General Association	\$104 00
Railway Agent—Viséing Certificates	46 25
Secretary Fraser	100 00
Treasurer Speirs	30 00
Minute Secretary	5 00
Printing	82 75
Postage, stationery, etc.	37 75
<hr/>	
Total disbursements	\$405 75
Balance on hand	\$19 75

The report was received and referred to the auditors.

Mr. S. Nethercott and Mr. Martin Kerr were appointed Auditors.

The following reports were then presented:—

(a) The Report of the Legislation Committee regarding the Resolutions of 1913.

(b) The Report of the Committee appointed to prepare a new course of study.

(c) The Committee regarding a Good Manners Circle.

The President was requested to appoint a committee to bring in nominations for committees for each of the Readers—Second, Third and Fourth—each to prepare (1) A Report on the arrangement of the Lessons; (2) An Index of the titles of the lessons; (3) the names of the authors; and (4) A Pronouncing Vocabulary of the Proper Names.

The following committee was named: W. J. Plewes, J. A. Underhill, W. G. Ward, Miss J. A. Henzy and Chas. G. Fraser.

It was moved by Martin Kerr and seconded by D. R. Harrison: That it be an instruction to the Executive of this Department to have all the reports printed for the use of the members.—Carried.

The following notices of motion were then presented:—

1. *By T. A. Reid*—Regarding the appointment of a committee to prepare information regarding the superannuation laws and schemes of various provinces, states and countries.

2. *By W. J. Plewes*—Regarding the union of the Inspectors', Training, Public School and Kindergarten Sections of the O.E.A., into one department.

3. The Resolutions of the County Institutes were taken as notices of motion.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Joint Meeting—Inspectors', Training and Public School Departments. Meeting called to order at two o'clock, President Rogers in the chair.

Mr. W. G. Ward presented the report of the Nominating Committee:—

(a) *Second Reader Committee*—James Kirkwood (London), Miss J. A. Henzy (Kingston), Miss Lena M. Field (Silverdale), Miss Nettie Feeney (Madoc), Miss M. E. Smith (Niagara Falls).

(b) *Third Reader Committee*—G. A. Jordison (Maynooth), W. H. Johnston (Kippin), M. W. Althouse (London), Miss Mary Thomas (Lindsay), Miss A. M. Calder (Toronto).

(c) *Fourth Reader Committee*—J. A. Underhill (Fort William), T. A. Mills (Bobeaygeon), H. A. Beaton (Walkerville), Chas. E. Kelly (Hamilton), Miss Laura Ryder (Kingston).

On motion of Principals Ward and Plewes, the report was adopted.

The President then named the following as a committee on the New Regulations and Course of Study:—J. A. Underhill, M. W. Althouse, Thos. Williams, W. G. Ward, H. Ward, W. J. Thomson, Martin Kerr, R. F. Sanderson, John A. Macdonald, J. W. Plewes, Miss E. Abram, Chas. G. Fraser and John Rogers.

Doctor John Seath, Superintendent of Education, then addressed the meeting on "The Public School Course of Study and Departmental Regulations—their purpose and interpretation."

At the conclusion of the address, it was moved by Principal Plewes and seconded by Principal Downey, that the combined Inspectors', Training and Public School Departments of the O.E.A. express their appreciation of Doctor Seath's able and lucid explanation of the proposed School Syllabus and Regulations for the Public and Separate Schools.

This was carried by a standing vote.

Doctor Seath made a suitable reply.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

Meeting called to order at 9.30 a.m., President Rogers in the chair. The President led the devotional exercises—all joining in the Lord's Prayer.

Doctor Silcox addressed the meeting regarding "The Hands Across the Seas" movement.

The Minutes of Tuesday's meetings were read and confirmed.

According to notice, Principal T. A. Reid, seconded by Principal John A. Macdonald, moved: "That in view of the fact that the local associations everywhere have, so far as heard from, endorsed the Superannuation resolutions of this Department and that many have desired more information as to the value, to the Province, of a Superannuation Fund, be it resolved that a committee of four be appointed to prepare an outline of the superannuation laws of various provinces, states and countries, the working of these laws and the general benefits to be derived from a good superannuation law; and that the information so obtained be sent to the local associations of the Province."—Carried.

It was moved by Principal Althouse and seconded by Principal Bryson that this committee consist of T. A. Reid, Chas. G. Fraser, W. J. Snelgrove and James D. Denny.—Carried.

According to notice, it was moved by Principal Plewes and seconded by Principal Kelly: "That steps be taken to induce the various departments and sections of the O.E.A. which are directly connected with and interested in public school work to be united into one department of the O.E.A."

It was moved in amendment by Principal D. Young and seconded by Principal Wm. Linton: "That we invite the co-operation of the Inspectors', Training and Kindergarten departments and other Public School sections to confer with us on any subject of importance to the Public School interests in the Province and that such resolutions as are then passed be presented through a joint committee.

The amendment carried.

The following resolutions of the County Institutes were presented and referred to the committee on resolutions.

Lennox and Addington—That Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School texts and that the authorization of no text-book go into effect till six months after it is published.

Lennox and Addington—That this Institute express the hope that the Primer be further improved so that in the matter of word-recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

Lennox and Addington—That the time-table for the High School Entrance examinations be arranged so as to cover three whole days and include periods specified for oral reading.

Algoma East—That whereas many pupils otherwise well qualified to pass the Entrance Examination fail on spelling and are therefore debarred from admittance to the High Schools, we request that the Department of Education deduct only one mark for each mis-spelled word in Dictation and that if a candidate pass successfully in all other subjects he should not be plucked should he fail in spelling.

West Leeds—That a Railway Map of Ontario be added to the request of Resolution 16.

West Leeds—That Resolution 43 be amended to read: That it be made legal for School Boards to pay the travelling expenses of teachers attending the annual convention of the O.E.A.

Brant—That we approve of the resolution regarding spelling passed by the Wentworth Teachers' Association.

Mr. J. A. Underhill reported the plan which was being adopted by the committee on the course of study and the regulations and asked all to co-operate in preparing a report which will be satisfactory.

Mr. W. F. Moore asked to have the Committee on Supplementary Reading discharged.

It was moved by Principal Linton and seconded by Principal H. Ward that the committee be retained and that the thanks of this department be expressed for the excellent work the Committee had done.—Carried.

Mr. Samuel Nethercott presented the report of the auditors showing a balance of \$19.75. (See pages 34-35.)

The Report was adopted.

Principal Mitchener gave notice of a motion regarding Military Training in the Public Schools.

Miss E. Abram, the Vice-President, was called to the chair.

President Rogers then delivered the President's address on "Books and Reading."

A very hearty vote of appreciation of President Rogers' Address was passed and he was requested to have it included in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 153.)

President Rogers then resumed the chair.

The Election of Officers resulted as follows:

<i>President</i>	-	-	-	- Miss E. Abram, Chatham.
<i>Vice-President</i>	-	-	-	J. A. Underhill, Fort William.
<i>Past President</i>	-	-	-	John Rogers, Lindsay.
<i>Secretary</i>	-	-	-	- Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.
<i>Treasurer</i>	-	-	-	- R. M. Speirs, Toronto.

It was moved by Principal Fraser and seconded by Miss Henzy and unanimously carried, That in the opinion of this Department, the purpose of Teachers' Institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

The meeting then adjourned.

• AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting called to order at 2.15, President Rogers in the chair.

Mr. D. Young announced that a meeting of principals had been called to meet in the East Hall at four o'clock to choose officers for the Public School Principals' Section of the O.E.A. for which a properly signed application had been sent to the Board of Directors.

Professor McCready was then called to the chair and President Creelman delivered an address on the work in Agricultural Education in Ontario during the year 1912. (See page 164.)

Professor McCready called the attention of the teachers to certain books which he thought would be found helpful to the teachers in rural schools.

Professor McCready then gave an address on the necessity for agriculture as an outstanding subject on our public school programme of studies and gave many valuable suggestions.

The eight Field Agents who had been appointed to inspect schools where the work in Agriculture is being taken up were then introduced.

Instructions were then given as to the steps that should be taken to have a school take up this work, and announcements regarding the summer schools were made.

Mrs. H. B. Miller then gave an address on "The Importance of Song and Play as Factors in Education for Rural Life." (See page 160.)

Short addresses were then given on various forms of educational activities which were being carried on in different localities and which had for their object the betterment of rural conditions.

Miss Elizabeth Crone: Rural School Improvement Associations in Lambton County.

Miss Eva Parker: Monthly Teachers' Meetings in Hastings County.

Mr. David Bebensee: A Babcock Milk Tester in the School.

Mr. John A. Macdonald: The Parents' and Teachers' Association in Macdonald Consolidated School, Guelph.

Miss Eberhardt: Schools in the Western Provinces as seen by an Ontario Rural School Teacher.

Mr. D. A. Macdonald: A School Experimental Farm in Oxford County.

Mr. Macdonald, Mr. Bebensee, Mr. Brown and Miss Crone were appointed as a special committee.

The meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH.

Meeting called to order at 9.30.

President Rogers in the chair.

Secretary Fraser led in devotional exercises.

The Minutes of Wednesday's meetings were read and confirmed.

Principal Moore asked when did the Principals meet and when were their officers elected?

It was moved by Principal Fraser and seconded by Principal Kelso: That the representatives of the Principals and the rural teachers be invited to select three representatives each to act with and form part of the Executive of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.—Carried.

In accordance with the notice given yesterday it was moved by Principal S. W. Mitchener and seconded by Principal J. H. Beamish that

Whereas the seemingly good features of military training have been magnified and its weaknesses minimized to the minds of those directly concerned; and

Whereas the real foes of our nation and race are not military but social, such as disease, poverty, ignorance, vice; and

Whereas military drill does not compare with the scientific application of some system of health drill in its power to effect improvement in physique and morals; and

Whereas military drill does not assist those in greatest need of physical development but rejects the unfit; and

Whereas militarism, even in a mild form tends to develop caste and is not available for industrial purposes; and

Whereas much valuable time is used for military drill in schools which is needed for other work; and

Whereas the whole system of military drill is opposed to the true spirit of education and the saving and developing of life, therefore be it resolved—

That we, public school teachers of Ontario, hereby express our sorrow at the encroachment of the military on our curriculum, and protest against the advances that are being made in that direction; and

That a copy of this resolution be forwarded to the Department of Education.

After a general discussion, the question was put and the motion lost.

Principal J. A. Underhill presented the report of the Committee on the Course of study, which was amended in a few particulars and referred to the special committee to be brought before the proper authorities.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Meeting called to order at 2 o'clock, President Rogers in the chair.

A committee was appointed to nominate three representatives of the rural teachers to act on the Executive of the Public School Section of the O.E.A.

Principal J. A. Trask then read a very valuable paper on "The School Readers as the Portal to Literature."

On motion it was decided to include this paper in the Report of the Proceedings.

It was moved by Principals Snelgrove and Gibbs that for Entrance Grammar the work in CASE be limited to

(1) *Nominatives*—Subject Nominative, Predicate Nominative, Appositive Nominative, and Nominative of Address.

(2) *Possessives*—Modifying a noun and without a noun.

(3) *Objectives*—Direct Object, Indirect Object, Objective after a preposition, Appositive Objective, and Adverbial Objective.

The usual grants and allowances were passed.

It was moved by Principal Fraser and seconded by Principal Cole that those resolutions of 1913 which have not been realized be reaffirmed by this Department.—Carried.

The committee nominated the following as rural school representative members of the Executive of this Department: John A. Macdonald, Guelph; Miss I. G. Beatty, South Porcupine; Prof. S. B. McCready, Guelph,

The report was adopted.

Principal Henry Ward was made chairman of the Committee on the Course of Study.

The meeting then adjourned.

CHAS. G. FRASER, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The Kindergarten Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the Senate Chamber of the Toronto University, the President, Miss Lillian B. Harding, in the chair. The session opened with the singing of the Kindergartners' Hymn. The minutes of last year's meeting were taken as read, being published in the Annual Proceedings.

Miss E. S. Rankin, of Stratford, was appointed Press Representative.

The President's address was most able and forcible, dealing with some of the problems that to-day are confronting all educators, and especially those of the little children. (See page 197.)

This was followed by a very interesting and instructive address by Prof. C. A. Chant, on "Star Maps and How to Use Them." Through the kindness of the lecturer, star maps were supplied to the audience, and added much to the interest of the subject.

"Pictures in the School Room" was the subject of an address by Mr. G. A. Reid, R.C.A. (See page 196.)

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

The important item of business on the programme this morning was the matter of the affiliation of this Department with the National Council of Women. It was decided to join the organization, and Mrs. Melville Whyte was appointed a delegate to the meetings of the Council, to be held in Rome next month.

"The Relations between the Kindergarten Child and the Child of the Primary Class" was the subject of an inspiring address by Miss Gertrude Ahner, of Toronto. This was to have been followed by a discussion on the above subject, but owing to lack of time this was postponed until Thursday morning.

Miss Carrie Newman, of Toronto, author of the "Kindergarten in the Home," then gave an interesting paper on "Suggestions for Story Telling." (See page 187.) A sequence story and an Easter story, by Miss Margaret Russell, were much appreciated by the audience.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1914.

The Treasurer's report was presented, noting the continued interest of the London Kindergartners in all joining the Department, and also the presence of several Kindergartners from centres hitherto unrepresented in the Department. The report showed a balance of \$116.26.

The election of officers was as follows:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	Miss Lillian B. Harding, Toronto.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Miss Clara Brenton, London.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	Miss M. MacIntyre, Toronto.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	Miss H. E. Heakes, 33 Hepbourne St., Toronto.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	Miss Louise M. Currie, Toronto; Miss Ada Baker, Ottawa; Miss E. Howell, Brantford; Miss E. Rankin, Stratford; Miss B. Dunlop, Kingston; Miss E. Clariss, London; Miss L. A. Fleming, Owen Sound; Miss L. Johnson, St. Thomas.

A charming talk upon "How to Make the Kindergarten Art Work More Definite," was given by Miss Auta Powell, of the Toronto Normal School. The rapid and artistic blackboard work of Miss Powell added much to the enjoyment of this important subject.

"Folk Dances and Singing Games. Their Recreative, Physical and Educational Value," by Mrs. Jean Somers, was a most valuable paper. (See page 193.) This was followed by "Games Illustrated," by Mrs. Somers and a class of her pupils, whose graceful interpretation of many of the old traditional games was greatly enjoyed.

The discussion upon the "Kindergarten and Primary Work," which had been postponed from Wednesday, was then taken up. Several Kindergartners and Primary teachers taking part, the general consensus of opinion seemed to be that each grade must have a clearer understanding of the work of the other. Miss Brenton, of London, gave an account of the Kindergartners' work in London, in the Kindergarten in the morning, and working with primary children in the afternoon.

The meeting adjourned at 1.15.

H. E. HEAKES, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

President F. A. Jones opened the meeting in the usual way.

Moved by Dean Coleman, seconded by R. W. Murray, that the minutes of last meeting be confirmed in the form in which they appear in printed proceedings of Association. Carried.

Mr. Jones delivered an address the theme of which was the educational origin, the previous training and the time spent thereat of the teachers-in-training at Ottawa Normal School. Mr. Jones gave a series of interesting statistics relating to the students, such as: the number born on farms, the percentage whose parents were born on farms, the average age at which they entered the elementary school, the average age at which they entered the High School and a number of other figures that engaged the attention of his hearers.

Andrew Stevenson of London Normal School followed with an excellent paper on "Psychology and English." The meeting adjourned for the day at 12.15.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

J. W. Plews, Chatham, opened the morning session with a stirring address on "The Model Lesson"—the one taught in the presence of the students-in-training by the instructor of methods in the training school or by the regular teacher in the practice school. He contended that the occasion and time of the lesson should be selected with a view to the convenience of the child and the needs of the teacher-in-training.

F. F. McPherson, Hamilton Normal School, read a paper entitled, "Citizens of To-morrow." Among other good things he said that true patriotism was the willingness to live for—and serve—one's country as well as to die for it.

Dr. Pakenham, Dean of the Faculty of Education, Toronto University, read a paper entitled, "First Chapter of Teacher Training in Ontario"; he traced the growth of the training school from the earliest efforts made at pedagogical training in the Province down to the establishment of the Toronto Normal School in 1847.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1914.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	William Prendergast.
<i>Secretary</i>	- - - - -	W. J. Chisholm.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	A. Stevenson.

J. F. White, Ottawa Normal School, related some impressions gained during a recent visit to schools in the United States. He touched two topics in particular: Consolidated Rural Schools and Educational Surveys.

Dr. White's address was followed by remarks from Dean Coleman and Mr. Prendergast. The former said in effect: "As Dr. White has pointed out, one of the most interesting of the current movements in education in the United States is represented by the School Survey (so called). This movement is based largely upon two beliefs, the first, that the school is not as useful an institution in a social way as might be, and the second, that through the employment of statistical method, the significant facts and needs of any school or school system is set forth. Ontario school teachers will find such school surveys as those of the cities of New York and Portland, and those of the States of Ohio and Vermont of great practical interest." The latter said that if consolidated rural schools were desirable in Ontario—and he thought they were—it was the duty of the educators to acquaint the rural rate-payers of the Province with the workings of these schools in Manitoba, Minnesota, Dakota and elsewhere and to endeavor to educate the country parents to realize the advantages of the consolidated school.

Duncan Walker, Peterboro, read an interesting paper on "Improvement in Teacher Training." Incidentally he remarked that there was no reason why we should try to keep the country boy on the farm, that we needed good lawyers, good doctors and good teachers as well as good farmers. He thought also that an attempt should be made to place before the city boy the opportunities of the farm.

John Dearness, W. E. McPherson and S. J. Radcliffe spoke briefly on matters arising out of Mr. Walker's address.

Prof. Findlay of Manchester spoke briefly and instructively in response to an invitation from the Chairman.

A motion was passed instructing the Executive to arrange if possible a joint meeting with the Public School Department for Easter, 1915.

The meeting adjourned about 12.15 after the Chairman had thanked the members for their help in conducting the meeting.

WILLIAM PRENDERGAST, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The meeting was called to order at 2 p.m., and a motion was carried to adjourn to the Public School Department to hear Dr. Seath's address on the proposed regulations.

The meeting was opened by prayer led by Mr. Stevens.

On motion the minutes of the last Annual Meeting were taken as read.

President Clarke appointed Messrs. T. A. Craig, Stevens and Coombs a Nominating Committee.

The Committee on Resolutions was composed of Messrs. Mowat, N. W. Campbell and Froats.

N. W. McDougall was appointed Press Secretary.

On motion the subject of Elementary Agriculture by Henry Conn and J. E. Benson was postponed till Wednesday, a.m., and the subject of "Truancy and the Truancy Act" by J. A. Taylor was postponed till Thursday, a.m.

A short informal discussion then followed on the expenses for office help for Inspectors. A vote showed that about half of those present are receiving an allowance for this purpose.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The session opened at 9 a.m.

Moved by Mr. Machell and Mr. Tom that this Section recommend the nomination of Inspector Summerby as President of Ontario Educational Association for 1914-15. Carried.

Moved by Messrs. Standing and Machell that section 2, subsection 8, and section 8, subsection c of the proposed Regulations

of the Public Schools be referred to the Committee on Resolutions for a report. Carried.

It was moved by Messrs. Conn and Smith that the course in Geography and History be referred to the Committee on Resolutions for a report. Carried.

The Chairman, H. J. Clarke, read an interesting paper on the "Public Library in Relation to the Public Schools."

The Section resolved itself into a Round Table Conference for the discussion of the Inspection of Urban and Rural Schools.

The discussion of "The Inspection of a Rural School" was led by T. A. Craig; Dr. Putman introduced the subject of "The Inspection of an Urban School."

In the afternoon the Inspectors met in joint session with the Trustees, with the Rev. James Buchanan, Chairman of the Trustees Section, presiding. Inspector Standing read a paper on "The Differentiation of the Rural and Urban Schools." Inspector Burgess gave a paper on "Township and County Boards." Inspector Smith of Stratford gave a short address on "The Rural School Programme."

These three subjects were of much interest, but on account of lack of time they were not followed by discussion.

The Section again met in its own room at 3.30 pm., and Messrs. Conn and Benson read papers on "Elementary Agriculture." After a full discussion of this subject by Messrs. Mulloy, Thompson, Johnson, Smith, Mackintosh, and others the meeting adjourned.

The Nominating Committee's Report named the following for officers of 1914-15:

President - - - - J. H. Smith, Chatham.

Sec.-Treas. - - - - W. C. Froats, Carleton Place.

Director - - - - Henry Conn, Sarnia.

The report was adopted.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1914.

J. A. Taylor read a paper on "Truancy and the Truancy Act." In this paper it was pointed out that the present Truancy Act is ineffective in the Rural Schools. The average attendance in Rural Schools is low. The Township Councils do not appoint

Truant Officers. It was suggested that the County Councils should make the appointments and that if possible the Children's Aid Officer should be the Truant Officer.

After an interesting discussion it was moved by J. A. Taylor, seconded by J. E. Tom that the Education Department be requested to remove the power of appointing a Truant Officer from Township Councils and Public School Boards and make it obligatory on County Councils to appoint annually one or more County Truant Officers, preference being given to the Children's Aid Officers.

Moved in amendment by Messrs. Liddy and Atkins that Mr. Taylor's paper be approved and that the matter be left in the hands of the members of the Advisory Council to bring before the Education Department.

Amendment carried.

Messrs. Campbell and Craig, members of the Advisory Council, gave a report of the work done during the year. The chief topics of the report were: Entrance Examination Regulations; the Teachers' Course in the Faculties of Education being better fitted for Public School Teachers; the use of the Bible in Schools; the Revision of the Manuals; the Teaching of Latin and French in Fifth Classes, and Training in Manners and Morals.

Isaac Day gave a paper on "The Time Limit of an Inspector's Visit." Mr. Day did not think that the number of visits required per year was too great, but thought the minimum of two-and-a-half hours too high. On account of bad roads, distance between schools, and the time necessary for the mid-day meal it was often necessary to detain pupils till nearly five o'clock in order to fulfil this condition.

The Superannuation of Inspectors was informally discussed. It was moved by Messrs. Tom and Maxwell that the officers and the members of the Advisory Council be a Committee to consider Superannuation or Retiring Allowances for Inspectors. Moved in amendment by Messrs. Huffand and Campbell that the Chairman and Messrs. Craig and Tom compose the Committee. Amendment carried.

The Auditor's Report showed a balance on hand of \$85.00. April 16th, 1914.

J. H. SMITH, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

The meeting assembled at 12.45 p.m. for registration. Eighty delegates registered the first afternoon.

After registration was concluded the President, Rev. James Buchanan, took the chair and asked Rev. Mr. Bell to open the meeting with prayer.

The following appointments were made: Press Committee—Mr. J. G. Elliot, Kingston; Mr. E. A. Doolittle, Orillia. Auditors—Mr. R. J. McKessock, Solina; Mr. J. C. Stewart, Pembroke.

Communications in the hands of Secretary from following persons were read:

From Messrs. Ormiston, Moore, Merchant, Fergusson, McKay, McNeillie and Dr. Seath.

The minutes as printed in the Proceedings of 1913-1914 were adopted.

The printed curriculum was distributed among the members and the following committee was appointed to look over the proposed changes in the curriculum:

Messrs. Houston, Toronto; Weir, Sarnia; Armstrong, Trenton; Amy, Drayton; Scott, Maple Valley; McCrae, West Elgin; Whale, Goldstone; Dr. Honsberger, Berlin; Collins, Welland, to report on same later on during the session.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS.

Balance on Hand	\$ 43 05
Received from Membership	159 00
Received from General Secretary	50 00
	<hr/>
	\$252 05

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid General Secretary	\$50 00
Paid Railways	18 00
Paid Postage and Stationery	17 00
Paid Printing	8 00
Paid Secretary's Allowance	75 00
Paid Extra Allowance	10 00
Balance on Hand	74 05
	<hr/>
	\$252 05

At 3 o'clock President Buchanan gave his address. (See addenda, page 237.)

Elliot and Bell. That the excellent address delivered by our President be received and that it be given to a committee who are to report thereon to-morrow morning. Carried.

Dr. Noble of Toronto referred to the address by our President and to such parts thereof which twenty years ago would have been considered preposterous for a rural trustee to hold, showing that the dividing line between city and country was rapidly being eliminated in considering and choosing which of the two was considered the better in life to choose from. Some of the references to privileges made in the address were in advance of those enjoyed in the city.

The following committee was appointed: Rev. Mr. Bell, Dr. Noble, Mr. J. G. Elliot.

At 3.35 p.m. Rev. Milne delivered an address on "The Bible as a Factor in Our Public Schools."

It was a most excellent address and enjoyed by all present. Mr. Milne drew attention to the most common objections against using the Bible. The presentation of counter agencies and the manner of meeting such arguments was made very plain and clear by Mr. Milne.

McKessock and Kirby, that a vote of thanks be tendered Mr. Milne for his address and that Mr. Milne be asked to prepare a short synopsis thereof which are to be printed in our minutes. Carried.

The Secretary regrets that owing to Mr. Milne being removed from his present sphere of operations to new territory he could not give it.

At 4.20 p.m., owing to the unavoidable absence of Mr. H. P. Moore, Mr. Elliot, of Kingston, read Mr. Moore's paper which had been sent in by him, "Duties of Trustees and Secretaries."

Elliot and Coughlin: That Mr. Moore's paper be printed in our minutes. (See addenda, page 254.)

A notice of motion as given in programme by Mr. S. T. Chown was next considered.

Weir and Woods: That the motion referred to be given the privilege of being accepted by this meeting in the same manner as if notice thereof had been given last meeting. Carried.

Mr. Chown then addressed the meeting on his motion. Resolved, that the county pay all the cost of educating county pupils at high schools.

The Secretary explained the position of the notice and wishing to make our meetings of the greatest importance and usefulness to trustee boards on questions of importance arising during the year, expressed his appreciation of the meeting's confirmation on his action.

Mr. Chown among other things stated that the question had been previously considered about seven years ago when he as mover moved the following resolution:

That the trustees department request the Government to amend the High Schools Act so that the counties be required to pay the same proportion of a rental for the use of capital expenditure as they now pay of the cost of maintenance.

The matter was freely considered by the members, and it is only when the members enter freely into the discussion that the question under consideration is made plain and clear to the delegates. They exercised the privilege of the occasion and various views of the question were brought forth and resulted in the following conclusion.

It was moved by Mr. Weir, seconded by Mr. Wickware, that the Education Department be asked to have the Government so amend the High Schools Act as to oblige County Councils to pay the whole cost of county pupils in high schools and collegiate institutes including the proper proportion of the interest on capital invested.

Mr. Doolittle referred to the best method. Mr. Davies spoke of the commercial advantages resulting from having schools situated in towns.

Mr. Amy referred to the beneficial results in reference to results following, by having a training school as high school in your midst by reason of the supervision of scholars by their parents. Mr. Mistele drew attention to the danger of county councils being overtaxed with applicants for high schools as a result of such action. Mr. Kirby, among other things, referred to county councils having the control of the situation, viz., new schools being opened.

Elliot and Amy: That we adjourn to meet at 9 a.m. the day following, as the hour was growing late, and continue debate in the morning session.

An amendment was moved and seconded that we continue the debate.

Upon a vote being taken, the motion carried by the President casting his vote in its favor, the vote being a tie.

The meeting then adjourned to Wednesday morning, April 15th, 9 a.m.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

Meeting opened at 9.10 a.m. The President, Rev. J. A. Buchanan, in the chair. The meeting was opened by prayer led by Rev. Mr. Armstrong. The minutes of previous meeting read and amended re the amendment of adjourning the previous afternoon session and then adopted as amended.

The report of the special committee named of the new curriculum.

Your committee report as follows: The proposed regulations of the public and separate schools are so extensive that it is impossible within the time at the disposal of your committee to fully investigate them.

Upon enquiry by a member of the committee from the Superintendent of Education he intimated that the special points about which the opinion of the trustees' department was desired are the provisions relating to Medical Inspection, Fifth Classes and the Junior and Senior Education Diploma.

1. Your committee are of the opinion that the regulations relating to Medical Inspection and 5th Classes and graduating Diplomas are fairly complete and satisfactory. Necessary changes in them can be discovered only by experience.

2. We are also of the opinion that the provisions of the Truancy Act both for urban and rural schools should be recast and made more stringent so as in some way to directly punish the truant himself. That the school boards should have the control of the truant officers who should be required to report directly to the board.

We also recommend that the earliest age be changed from five to six.

3. That the provisions regarding truancy should apply to all pupils actually enrolled up to fourteen and to all children between eight and fourteen whether enrolled or not.

J. M. AMY, *Chairman*.

A. WEIR, *Secretary*.

Weir and Wickware: That the report be adopted.

Laughton and Tolmie: That report be read and considered clause by clause.

The amendment was carried.

Clause 1 adopted.

Clause 2. Doolittle and Collins: That the words "should engage" and "have control" be inserted. Carried.

Clause 3. Tolmie and Doolittle: That age be not increased.

Amendment. Elliot and McCurdy: That age be increased from fourteen to sixteen.

The motion carried.

Various motions were made as to age limit for admission.

Tolmie and Doolittle advocate five years.

Jones and McKessock advocate seven years.

The age limit of six was discussed but no particular motion to have it the fixed age was made. So the meeting voted on five and seven year periods.

Messrs. Tolmie's and Doolittle's motion that children be admitted at 5 years of age was carried.

The motion to adopt report of special committee as amended was carried. At 10.35 R. Lees, M.A., P. S. Inspector, Peterboro, addressed the meeting on Public School Problems. The speaker reviewed the situation from a number of standpoints and was listened to with pleasure and profit.

Elliot and Bell: That the thanks of this meeting be given to Mr. Lees for his excellent address and the mover complimented the speaker on the subject matter of his address. The motion was carried unanimously.

At 11.45, owing to a number of delegates attending the business of another delegation from Renfrew who were paying a visit to the Minister of Education, Dr. Honsberger's address was held over until the afternoon.

Report of committee on President's address:

Your committee on the President's address approves generally of its excellence, its timeliness and the conclusions reached. The development of the pupils in those ideas that make for good citizenship is, as is rightly expressed, a work that must occupy the foremost place in educational progress.

Your committee approves of medical inspection and the dissemination of knowledge of hygiene and health and would urge on the Education Department the adoption of adequate regulations in respect to these things. Dental attention might also be profitably exploited. We deplore the lack of manners and deportment in the youth of the land, the lack of reverence for age and position and a generally unappreciative attitude towards those things that make men and women gentle, sweet, self-sacrificing and disciplined in speech, in manner and in conduct. Foulness in speech and in life is too much in evidence and we would, as our President suggests, have the trustees seized with the responsibility of making all pupils in our schools clean and moral and well fitted to become citizens of a powerful progressive state and the parent of a strong virile race.

Your committee approves the remarks of the President as to trustees' representation on the advisory council and recommend the re-endorsation of the department's suggestion that the Minister increase the number to four to be elected as heretofore by this department. We also would wish that the trustees' department should be more largely attended and respectfully submit to the department the issue for consideration.

The President has with tact and appreciation of the good points of technical education sketched the work of the Royal Commission and we would earnestly recommend a study of the request so that at a future time the trustees may aid in establishing schools that will give to Canada a great industrial uplift, placing her people in a way for the highest development, producers, discoverers and designers. Play as a force in the development of physical and mental power is now acknowledged everywhere. We urge the best playgrounds, the best equipment and the best measures in the country and city so that play be exemplified as a vital and invigorating element in the betterment of the children of the land. Playgrounds properly conducted will soon settle the necessity for police and prison and penitentiary. We recommend that the Education Department investigate the element of

play as an educational adjunct and to act according to the best light.

Your committee recognizes its thoughtful presentation of the rural problem, as it touches the school, the home, the community and life generally. The uplift into a better status must come through higher educational ideas, wider and more intelligent co-operation by government and by city in giving to the rural sections the advantage that will tend to make them self-reliant, progressive and broader gauged and a social and scientific assertion through teacher and preacher. Meantime the social worker, the politician, the educationist and philanthropist have a wide field for operation and cultivation.

As in times past the consolidated school scheme is endorsed and commended as a means for the attainment of the best in teaching and grading in country sections.

We cordially suggest the publication in the minutes in the Ontario Education report the President's address with the hope that its contents will be thoughtfully considered and tend largely to a stronger and firmer grip upon the needs of the day, and the application of the best possible remedies.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

J. G. ELLIOT, *Chairman.*

Elliot and Bell: That the committee's report be adopted. Carried.

The following gentlemen were appointed the nominating committee: J. G. Elliot, Convener; Col. Farewell, Dr. Honsberger, A. Weir, E. A. Doolittle, J. J. Morrison, R. J. McKessock.

Motion to adjourn until two o'clock the same afternoon. Carried.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

After the assembling of the members for the afternoon session, they adjourned in a body to the colleges and high school department to listen to an address by F. W. Merchant, M.A., D.Paed., on "Some Phases of Industrial and Technical Education."

At 4.15 p.m. the trustees' department re-assembled in their own room to further conduct their business.

Nominating committee reported as follows:

We beg to recommend that the officers of the trustees' department for ensuing year be as follows:

<i>President</i>	W. S. Ormiston, Uxbridge.
<i>Vice-President</i>	A. Weir, Sarnia.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	A. Werner, Elmira.
<i>Director</i>	E. A. Doolittle, Orillia.

Executive Committee—R. J. McKessock, Solina; J. J. Morrison, Arthur; J. M. Amy, Drayton; S. T. Chown, Renfrew; R. H. McCurdy, Vienna; Canon F. W. Armstrong, Trenton.

Programme Committee to be composed of the President, Director and Secretary-Treasurer and if the committee cannot meet during the time of the meeting of the Ontario Education Association Board held by them on Thanksgiving Day, the committee is to arrange a suitable date and the expenses of the meeting are to be paid.

All of which is respectfully submitted,

J. G. ELLIOT, *Chairman.*

Carried.

Dr. Honsberger, Berlin, then read his paper on "The Educational Problem in Growing Towns and Cities." (See addenda, page 249.)

McDonald and Fisher: That a hearty vote of thanks be given the Doctor and we request that his paper be printed in our minutes. Carried.

The Secretary referred to the excellency of his paper.

J. J. Morrison referred to the two viewpoints of cost of maintenance and also providing for those who do not purpose to pursue high schools to fit themselves for professional activities.

J. G. Hurst explained the proportion Waterloo county townships assumed relative to those attending collegiate institutes.

Mr. Douglas, of Hepworth, spoke, giving the arrangement made by the county of Bruce. They granted the full 100 per cent. of the cost of maintenance.

Mr. McCaughey, of Cobourg, spoke in reference to the fees paid by children in attendance, outside pupils being granted free tuition.

Mr. McCurdy, of Vienna, in reference to maintenance in continuation schools within the high school district.

Mr. Elliot, of Kingston, referred to the purchasing of playgrounds by the municipality.

The advisory council representatives gave a verbal report as to their work in advising in the preparation of the new curriculum as presented in the pamphlet and which had received considerable attention by this department during the session.

As to the difficulty of enforcing certain regulations of the Truancy Act, and a remedy having been previously recommended by this department to the Education Department, relative to compulsory attendance and the Truancy Act and no mention has been made in the proposed change, it was again brought before this meeting and by them discussed and fully considered.

Moved by Mr. Tolmie, seconded by Mr. Elliot, that this meeting repeat the definition of the word "School" as previously passed by this Department and printed on page 62 of the 1911 Proceedings of the Ontario Educational Association and that the Department be requested to add the definition of the word School, as there defined, to the contemplated or proposed changes of the public and separate school regulations. Carried.

It being 5.25, it was moved to adjourn till Thursday, April 16th, 9 a.m. Carried.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1914.

The meeting assembled at 9.10, the President, Rev. Mr. Buchanan, in the chair.

Rev. Mr. Tolmie opened the meeting by prayer.

The minutes of the two previous sessions read and confirmed.

At 9.40 a.m. J. B. McClinton, M.D., Elmvale, read his paper on "Medical Inspection as it Applies to Rural Schools."

Dr. Honsberger and Elliot: That we extend to the Doctor a hearty vote of thanks and that his paper be printed in our minutes. Carried.

Mr. Elliot gave the meeting an account of the value of nurses in conjunction with the inspectorate work.

Dr. McKnight, of Kingston, who was present at the morning session, addressed the meeting.

C. C. Rae, a representative of the Halton County Trustees' Association, spoke of the pleasure it gave him to be present and

suggested to the meeting that a wider knowledge of the benefits attending such meetings should by some means be disseminated.

Rev. Mr. Bell and also Mr. McKessock alluded to the means of bringing the contents of valuable papers before the ratepayers.

The Secretary was instructed to have copies of Dr. McClinton's paper especially printed and mailed to the members in attendance. They to use their influence in having it printed in their local papers.

Miss Cameron Smith, who was present, was granted permission to address the meeting on the work as it was being carried on in different parts of Ontario, in ascertaining the percentage of defective vision, defective living, medical ailments, hygienic troubles, bad teeth, etc., etc., the teacher receiving instruction how to detect defects and draw the parents' attention to the matter. The lady received a very attentive hearing and no doubt the information will be of use to trustee boards.

Moved by Dr. McClinton, seconded by Dr. Honsberger, that we desire to express our appreciation of the address and hope that the sphere of usefulness carried on by Miss Smith and others be extended that much good may result therefrom. Carried.

At 11 a.m. Mr. T. A. Reid, of Owen Sound, addressed the meeting on the subject "Superannuation as a Measure to Supply Shortage of Teachers."

Elliot and Simpson: That we thank Mr. Reid for his address on this difficult question, he having given evidence of having given the matter careful consideration. Carried.

The auditor's report on treasurer's statement follows: We have audited the treasurer's statement and found it correct.

J. C. STEWART,

R. J. MCKESSOCK,
Auditors.

Elliot and Bell: That the auditor's statement be accepted. Carried.

The officers of the Association were appointed delegates to wait on the Minister and lay before him such recommendations of changes as are requested by this meeting.

Elliot and Honsberger: That the usual honorarium be granted to our secretary for his excellent work and that he be paid an extra allowance of not more than \$20.00.

The hour being late, the meeting agreed to lay over all notices of motion and such other resolutions not brought to a finding during this session.

The President was asked to vacate the chair and in the absence of the newly elected President, Rev. Mr. Bell was asked to take the chair.

The members spoke very highly of the courtesy extended by our late President to the members and of his ability of directing the various matters being considered during the sessions and referred to his being able to direct in a most pleasant manner. It was moved by Rev. Mr. Bell, seconded by Mr. Werner, That this meeting is deeply indebted to our late President for his labors given so freely during the year and to which the success of the meeting is very largely due.

Rev. Mr. Buchanan thanked the meeting for its expression and after a closing prayer by Canon Armstrong the sessions were closed.

MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1914.

The English and History Section of the O. E. A. held its eighth annual meeting in Room 13, University College, with the President, Prof. W. E. Macpherson, in the chair. Upon motion the minutes of 1913 were taken as read.

The President then presented the report of the Committee on Supplementary Reading in History. On motion of Mr. G. M. Jones, seconded by Mr. G. Malcolm, it was agreed that this committee should be asked to continue their work during the coming year.

Mr. L. J. Pettit introduced a discussion on the question of whether all Departmental Examinations in History should be abolished. The discussion was participated in by several other members of the section.

Mr. G. M. Jones then gave a very interesting lantern exhibition of pictures from Canadian History, showing the great value of lantern slides in the teaching of History.

This was followed by an excellent paper from Mr. Frank Wise, of the Macmillan Co., of Canada, on "The Relation of the Publisher to Literature."

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place and resulted as follows:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	G. M. Jones, B.A.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Miss E. J. Guest, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	Jas. Keillor, B.A., 116 Beatrice St., Toronto.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	Prof. M. W. Wallace.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Prof. W. E. Macpherson, G. Malcolm, B.A., Miss C. S. Cunningham, B.A.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1914.

On Wednesday morning a joint meeting was held with the Modern Language Section. This was a new feature and proved so successful that it was unanimously decided to hold another next year.

The meeting opened with Prof. W. E. Macpherson, President of the English and History Section, in the chair.

A most excellent and instructive address was given by Prof. McNeill, of Queen's University, on "Shakespeare's Theatre." The address was illustrated by lantern slides.

Prof. L. E. Horning then gave an interesting paper on "The Modern English Drama," in which he sketched the chief features of the Drama at the present time.

Miss W. L. Colbeck gave an instructive sketch of the literary work of John Masefield. This was followed by an interesting paper from Miss F. B. Ketcheson, on the work of John Galsworthy.

The meeting then adjourned.

MINUTES OF HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The eleventh annual meeting of the Home Science Section was held in Room 51. The first session opened at 9.30 a.m., with the Vice-President, Miss Ewing, in the chair. The minutes of the last annual meeting were read and adopted. The Treasurer's report showed a balance on hand of \$42.38. A Nominating Committee was appointed—Misses Twiss, Strong and Ewing. Miss Elliott and Miss Strong were appointed Auditors, and Miss Govenlock, Press Reporter.

Owing to Miss Fisher's illness her paper on "Dietetics" was not presented, and Miss Hazlett gave an interesting talk on "Institutional Management."

Institutional Management may be defined as an established system of directing affairs, and this is the keynote of successful management. There are three ways of viewing this—(1) Success from the standpoint of the directors of an institution; (2) success from the standpoint of the patient; and (3) success from the standpoint of the dietitian. These three phases were then fully and ably discussed, the factors entering into each being pointed out and explained.

In concluding, Miss Hazlett said that Institutional work was not easy but was most interesting, and afforded a source of excellent experience for Household Science workers.

Miss Eadie followed with a talk on "Household Science Without Equipment." Lesson plans handed in to her by Normal School students were discussed, and it was shown how, by simple experiments requiring no special equipment, the student could be taught the care of the home, or of various foodstuffs. Miss Eadie also pointed out how Household Science could be correlated with other school subjects, e.g., in discussing the source of food supplies correlation could be made with Geography, in measuring ingredients with Arithmetic, in dexterity of handling utensils, etc., with Physical Culture, etc., etc. A system of score cards for the care and use of kitchen, larder, cellar, etc., was explained.

Altogether it was shown that good work could be done with little or no equipment, an important point in rural districts or where the means were restricted.

The meeting adjourned at twelve noon.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at two o'clock, Miss Elliott in the chair.

Much interest was taken in Dr. Harold Clark's very entertaining and instructive paper on "Diet and Dentistry." This paper will be found in full in the report of the annual proceedings. Attention may be directed to Dr. Clark's plea in closing, for co-operation between those interested in nutrition, and the dentists who are trying to do their share in educating the public to perceive the relationship between "Diet and Dentistry."

Dr. Creelman then gave an interesting paper on "Education for Women." This paper also will be found in the annual report.

Mr. Leake spoke for a few moments, thanking Dr. Creelman for his instructive discourse, and was followed by Mr. Putnam, who said that women both from the farm and the town should simplify their work, and thus have time for outside interests, such as improving school conditions, sanitation, etc.

Literature in regard to the work of Womens' Institutes was offered the section by Mr. Putnam.

Meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The third session opened at 10.30 a.m.

The Nominating Committee brought in the following list of names for office:

President—Miss Eadie.

Vice-President—Miss Watson.

Secretary-Treasurer—Mrs. Gausby.

Councillors—Misses Laird, Pritchard, Elliott, Pease, Ockley, Riley, Paul.

Moved by Miss Baird, seconded by Miss Calhoun, that the officers be elected as nominated. Carried.

In the report of the Bureau of Information it was stated that \$4.85 had been expended in the printing of new cards. Of these seventy-five had been sent out to new graduates, twenty-six had been returned, and others were coming in gradually.

The report of the new Curriculum Committee was presented by Miss Sutherland. Only four replies out of seventy-five papers sent out to teachers asking for information as to suggested curriculum had been received. A discussion as to the best answer received was begun.

It was the general opinion that sewing should be taught in the lowest grades of the Public School, but by a regular teacher, and not by a Household Science teacher.

A discussion of Dr. Seath's proposed new curriculum for Public Schools followed.

It was moved by Miss Laird, seconded by Miss Twiss, that the Home Science Section suggest that certain changes should be made in the curriculum as follows:

In Form II. (p. 35) advise taking out the "cutting of simple patterns," and putting in "knitting and crocheting with wool."

In Form III. (p. 38) advise by majority of one, in favor of taking *practical* cooking and cleaning in junior third class. Also advise by majority of one, in favor of taking "methods of cooking," *formally* instead of *incidentally*.

In Form IV. (p. 43) advise in favor of taking out frying, pastry, canning, preserving, jelly-making and pickling.

Advise that "Drafting Patterns" (p. 52) should be removed from curriculum in this grade.

That the section feels that the curriculum is not by any means an ideal one, but that the above changes seem for the present to be the only practical ones.

It was moved by Miss Eadie, seconded by Miss Hills, that the Curriculum Committee should continue to investigate and seek information regarding curricula elsewhere. Carried.

Meeting adjourned.

MRS. E. L. GAUSBY (Sec.-Treas.).

MINUTES OF PHYSICAL TRAINING AND SCHOOL HYGIENE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The Section met in Room 59, with the President, Mr. John Dearnness, in the chair.

Mr. Fred Smith, Physical Director of the Central Y.M.C.A., Toronto, read a paper on "The Ethical Value of Play." This was followed by a paper by Dr. W. E. Struthers, Chief Medical Inspector of Schools, Toronto, on "The Open-Air School." Both papers were of exceptional interest and a motion of appreciation of both contributions was passed, with the request that they be printed in the minutes.

The draft of the new regulations governing Medical and Dental Inspection of Schools was considered by the Section and the Secretary was instructed to forward, to the Superintendent of Education, the suggestions of the Section.

The following resolutions were moved by Mr. Dearnness, seconded by Prof. Knight, and by Prof. Knight, seconded by Dr. Doherty, respectively:

"That the Minister of Education be respectfully requested to add Physiology and Hygiene to the course in Biology in High Schools, some of the present parts of the course, if necessary, being eliminated."

"That a special annual grant be suggested to the Minister of Education for all Boards of School Trustees establishing Medical and Dental Inspection of Schools."

The following officers were elected:

<i>Hon. President</i>	- - -	Mr. John Dearnness, M.A.
<i>President</i>	- - - - -	Dr. Helen MacMurchy.
<i>Vice-President</i>	- - -	Dr. W. H. Doherty.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	Mr. Fred Smith, Central Y.M. C.A., Toronto.
<i>Director</i>	- - - - -	Mr. Kirk.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - -	Inspector W. F. Chapman, Dr. A. P. Knight, Dr. C. A. Hodgetts, Mr. Might, Dr. Coleman, Miss Hodgetts.

MINUTES OF THE MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

President, R. F. Fleming, occupied the chair.

The minutes were adopted as read.

The President in his address dealt generally with the principles and laws governing Art.

Miss F. M. King addressed the section on Art Appreciation and showed the characteristic interests of each of the four stages of a child's development.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

At the forenoon session Mr. J. T. Power introduced the discussion of the relation of Manual Training to Industrial Education. The former was not only preparatory to, but a part of industrial education.

Mr. Caleb Medcalf's treatment of the subject, "The Making, Firing and Glazing of Pottery," was practical and exceedingly interesting.

With an extensive exhibit of pottery from the Ottawa Public Schools, Mr. Medcalf described in detail the kinds of clays used, the equipment needed and the processes of making the pottery.

On motion, this paper was requested to be printed in the minutes of the Association.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

Mr. S. W. Perry, B.A., in his address on Picture Study described the kinds of pictures suited to the ages and development of children. Study a picture as you would a literary production. Tests for selecting good pictures were enumerated. The address was illustrated by reprints from the great master painters.

Mrs. Mayberry advocated more thorough training of teachers in Art to secure good work in the Public Schools. She demonstrated her method of teaching proportion in drawing.

Mr. G. W. Hofferd, M.A., outlined his methods of teaching the Art work of the High School Course as follows: Lettering, its

application, geometric drawing; design, and drawing from nature. The section requested the publication of this address in the minutes.

The section expressed its appreciation of the exhibits of Art work from the Toronto Public Schools and pottery from the Ottawa Public Schools.

The following officers were then elected:

Hon. President—R. F. Fleming, Ottawa.

President—J. N. Moffatt, Toronto.

Vice-President—J. H. Wilkinson, Toronto.

Sec.-Treas.—Edward Faw, 135 Delaware Ave., Toronto.

Councillors.—Miss F. M. King, Miss Mulveney, A. T. Newlands, R. N. Shortill.

EDWARD FAW,
Sec.-Treas.

MINUTES OF THE CONTINUATION SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH.

The Continuation Section met in Room 12, and after the registration of members, was called to order by Pres. Jas. M. Smith.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read by the Secretary, and on motion of Messrs. W. H. Stewart and W. E. Jarrott were adopted.

Moved by Mr. W. H. Stewart and seconded by Miss B. R. Hull that Messrs. Theo. Allan and W. Butcher be Auditors. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. G. Cameron and seconded by Mr. Wm. L. Bowden that Messrs. W. H. Stewart and W. E. Jarrott be Press Representatives. Carried.

Miss Elsie M. Wise, Vice-President, was elected to the chair, and she called for the President's address on "The Teacher's Calling."

Moved by Miss Susan O'Leary, seconded by Miss B. R. Hull, that the President's address be inserted in the proceedings of the O. E. A. Carried.

Discussions followed, that on the proposed constitution of the O. E. A., being led by Mr. W. H. Stewart, and on Supplementary Reading by Miss Bessie R. Hull.

Adjournment moved by Mr. C. W. Butcher, seconded by Mr. Wm. L. Bowden. Carried.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

Meeting opened at 9.15 a.m.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions for 1912, presented by Mr. G. K. Mills, B.A., showed that of the five resolutions one had been granted by the Education Department, and one was now unnecessary under the changed conditions.

Moved by Mr. T. Cayley, seconded by Mr. W. H. Stewart, that the report be adopted. Carried.

Professor McCready gave an address on the curriculum in Agriculture, the report of which will be found elsewhere in this volume, and the discussion was led by Mr. W. B. Weiderhammer, B.A.

Dr. Gordon E. Hewitt, Dominion Entomologist, gave an illustrated address on the house-fly.

The afternoon session was opened by Mr. G. K. Mills, B.A., with an address on "Schools of the Northern States that correspond to our Continuation Schools." A copy of this address will be found elsewhere in this volume.

Moved by Mr. Christopher Summers, seconded by Mr. G. A. Clarke, that a resolution be submitted to the Education Department petitioning them to change the time-table for the Departmental Midsummer Examinations so that the Lower School and Middle School Examinations be made to run concurrently in order to (1) lessen the expense to School Boards, especially those of Continuation and small High Schools, (2) give a week or two more time to teaching the work of the Lower and Middle Schools, (3) satisfy the School Boards who complain of loss of time by the removal of teachers for presiding and reading papers, and (4) permit the holding of Departmental Exams. in small centres where it is now very difficult to do so. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Henry Gray, B.A., seconded by Mr. C. Summers, that the Education Department be requested to amend the High School Entrance Act so that principals of two and three teacher

Continuation Schools should be members of the High School Entrance Board to which their centre is attached. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. R. Pickering, seconded by Mr. W. E. Jarrott, that Messrs. W. H. Stewart and Jas. M. Smith be a committee to report at the next annual meeting, showing how much the minimum salary on which a grant is paid would need to be raised in order to provide for the maximum as specified in this Section's resolution of last year. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. R. Pickering, seconded by Mr. W. H. Stewart, that Messrs. Chris. Summers and Geo. A. Clarke be a committee to press these resolutions before the Department and report at next annual meeting. Carried.

Moved by Mr. C. Ward Butcher, seconded by Miss Bessie R. Hull, that the following resolution be presented to the Dept. of Education: "Whereas the work in two-master High Schools is not different from that of Grade B Continuation Schools, be it resolved that it is in the best interests of Education that teachers with first class professional certificates be permitted to hold the principalship of two-master High Schools after they have had five years' successful teaching experience, at least three of which have been spent wholly in Secondary Schools." Carried.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1914.

The session opened at 9.15 a.m.

A letter from Inspector Hoag was read regretting his absence as he had to attend a conference of Secondary School Inspectors at the Department of Education.

The Treasurer's report was presented, showing receipts \$51.09, expenditures \$42.89, and balance \$8.29.

Moved by Mr. A. C. Bernath, seconded by Mr. Christopher Summers, that the report be adopted and that a hearty vote of thanks be tendered to the retiring Secretary-Treasurer for his faithful services. Carried.

The Auditor's report was presented in writing, signed by Mr. C. W. Butcher, and on motion of Messrs. A. W. Cameron and W. H. Stewart was adopted.

Moved by Mr. A. C. Bernath, seconded by Mr. A. W. Cameron, that the addresses of Professor McCready, Inspector Mills, and Dr. Hewitt be incorporated in the proceedings of the O. E. A. Carried.

Moved by Mr. A. W. Cameron, seconded by Mr. T. Cayley, that Mr. W. H. Stewart be President for 1915. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. R. Pickering, seconded by Mr. J. I. Harvey, that Miss Susan O'Leary be Vice-President. Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. R. Pickering, seconded by Mr. A. W. Cameron, that Mr. Christopher Summers be Secretary-Treasurer. Carried.

Moved by Mr. A. W. Cameron, seconded by Mr. T. Cayley, that Mr. J. P. Hoag, Inspector of Continuation Schools, be Hon. President for 1914. Carried.

Moved by Mr. T. Cayley, seconded by Mr. A. C. Bernath, that Mr. A. W. Cameron, Miss Ruple Taite, Mr. W. E. Jarrott, Miss Annie J. Stewart, Miss Inez Stafford and Mr. C. W. Butcher be Councillors for 1915. Carried.

Discussions followed, that on Laboratory Work being led by Mr. Thos. Cayley and participated in by nearly all the teachers present, that on the Dominion Educational Association by Mr. J. R. Pickering, and Plans for Next Year by Mr. W. H. Stewart.

MINUTES OF THE SIMPLIFIED SPELLING SECTION.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The meeting was opened in Room 18 at 3.45 p.m. In the absence of Professor J. G. Hume, on a trip to the Pacific, Principal Alexander McQueen was voted to the chair.

The Secretary-Treasurer presented the business and financial report, which was received and adopted.

The attendance over-crowding the room, the meeting was at this stage adjourned to the Library.

A short paper from Sir William Ramsay, communicated by the Secretary of the British Spelling Society was read. It compared the writer's experience in learning the spelling of German with that of the English-speaking child in learning to spell English.

Mr. John Dearness read a paper on the Progress of the Movement for the Reform of Spelling. It was referred to the Executive Committee to be printed.

Principal W. F. Moore, Dundas, gave an address on the Present Status of Spelling in Relation to True Education. He moved, seconded by Prof. D. R. Keys, that at the Entrance Examination one mark should be deducted instead of two for each misspelling on the spelling paper. The motion was discussed by Dr. Strang, Messrs. W. Houston, J. E. Tom, J. C. Brown and others, and carried unanimously.

Mr. W. M. Metford spoke of the present spelling as a handicap to missionary effort among adult forenere. Phonetic spelling would assist—the speech as well as facilitate reading among such people.

Moved by Mr. Wm. Houston, seconded by Prof. Keys, that a committee consisting of Dr. Strang, Mr. Wm. F. Moore, the Secretary, the mover and seconder, with power to add to their number, be appointed with instructions to draw up a list of reformed spellings and take steps with a view to securing their adoption in popular publications. Carried.

On motion of Mr. John Flower—the Executive of the O. E. A. be requested to use in the publication of the minutes the “—or” instead of “—our” spellings and at least six of the original simplifications used in all the official publications of the N. E. A. The words selected were tho, altho, thoro, thoroly, program, catalog. Carried.

Election of officers:

<i>President</i>	- - - - -	William Houston, M.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	- -	John Dearness, M.A.
<i>Corresponding Secretary</i>		Alexander McQueen.
<i>Councillors</i>	- - - - -	Professor D. R. Keys, M.A., Mr. Robert Alexander, Mr. William F. Moore, Dr. L. E. Horning, Mr. J. S. Lane, B.A., Mr. William Scott, B.A., Dr. D. A. Maxwell, Mr. W. M. Metford. Dr. Alexander Hamilton, M.A.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association,

1913-1914.

Receipts.

Balance from last Statement	\$301 88
Membership Fees	491 25
Advertisements in Proceedings and Programme	173 00
Annual Grant, Ontario Government	1,200 00
	\$2,166 13

Payments.

Sundry Expenses of Convention	\$56 50
Printing Programmes, Circulars, etc.	407 49
Posting, Mailing Express	73 48
Secretary of Departments	60 00
General Secretary, Salary	200 00
Assistant	10 00
Treasurer	50 00
Transcript of Evening Meetings	48 50
Railway Fare, Executive Committee	61 50
Commission on Advertisements	48 75
Printing and Binding Proceedings.....	700 36
Special Grant to Trustees Department.....	50 00
Balance on hand	399 55
	\$2,166 13

W. J. HENDRY,
Treasurer.

R. WILLSON DOAN,
General Secretary.

We, the undersigned auditors, have examined the books, ledger, etc., and summary of receipts and expenditures as submitted by Mr. W. J. Hendry, Treasurer, and find them correct in every particular.

The balance on hand is \$399.55.

The summary of receipts and expenditures is submitted herewith.

Yours truly,

JOHN DEARNESS,
D. YOUNG,

Auditors.

Received and adopted, April 15th, 1914.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

DR. COLQUHOUN'S ADDRESS.

The Minister of Education is unable to leave the Legislature this evening and to perform for himself the pleasant duty of welcoming you in annual Convention. Although this duty has devolved upon his Deputy, let me assure you that the welcome is none the less cordial and sincere.

The Annual Meeting of your Association is considered by the Department to be of great value, since it brings together on common ground the experienced teachers of the Province and the representatives of the trustees. This meeting affords opportunity for the discussion of educational questions on their merits, and detached from all other considerations. The satisfactory attendance which you secure year after year is due in part, it seems to me, to the fact that you keep educational interests separate from municipal, political or other issues which can be more effectively dealt with in the arenas reserved for them. The wisdom which your Committee has shown in this respect in avoiding the snare of current controversies or agitations only remotely connected with education accounts in great measure for the influence exercised by the Association upon the educational policy of the Province.

I cannot help feeling that the Committee which has provided this extremely interesting programme has set aside a strenuous work for the teachers in the middle of their holidays. On one occasion I took the liberty of suggesting that you omit the Friday evening meeting and I am going to take the liberty again of suggesting that in future years you concentrate more upon the day meetings and perhaps leave the members of the Association free to occupy themselves otherwise in the evenings.

The relations which have existed during the past nine years between the Association and the Minister of Education are, I think, creditable to both. Neither has sought to shift responsibility for taking action upon the other and neither has been hampered by the existence of the other. If there has been co-operation between them—and on important occasions I am glad to know there has been—the objects which have been secured proclaim the chief purpose to have been the educational advancement of the Province. The Minister of Education is of necessity a party politician. But it may fairly be said that the intervention of politics into our educational affairs has been kept at the minimum. This is not a perfect world, and probably no administration of education will ever be perfect, but there exists a general feeling that the desires and intentions of Sir James Whitney in regard to the welfare of the schools are absolutely honest and that this has been the animating impulse of the Department. And I am glad to think also there has been a feeling of satisfaction that the Premier seems to be steadily recovering his health after a serious illness.

It can be said at least of the policy of the Province that it has kept steadily in the forefront of the educational programme the status and the interests of the teaching body. The aim has not only been to provide adequate professional training for teachers, but there has been an effort, not wholly unsuccessful, to improve their financial position. If the fruits of this policy have not attained everything hoped for at the outset, the only course for the Minister to pursue is to continue every practical effort to promote both the intellectual and material interests of the teaching body. We must not stand still. Already some proofs of the direction in which we are going have been given, and I think we can fairly encourage the Minister of Education to continue those efforts. We are nearer to-day than we have ever been to supplying a legally qualified teacher for every school. This is not as easy as it appears to be. There still continues the westward drain. There still continue the attractive openings in other occupations owing to the expansion of Ontario, and there are the increased number of schools both in New and Old Ontario calling for a larger supply of teachers. But in spite of these difficulties there are probably in the neighbourhood of 12,000 certificated teachers in the Province, and, in round numbers, there are scarcely more

than 750 who have temporary certificates. The professional training schools, never so efficient as they are to-day, are well attended. This is an effective reply to those who complain that there is too much professional training and specialization. We cannot go back in this respect. The day has long since gone by when a lad or a young girl with a certain amount of knowledge and a desire to teach is good enough for the average school. I believe that any step in the direction of lowering the standard of professional qualifications would be a mistaken step and would be an attempt to move back the hands on the face of the clock.

The Minister's intention was to have said something to you in relation to the question of superannuation. And when I asked him what he desired to say upon that question this year I took a note of his exact words, which I propose to read to you:

"I have consulted my colleagues and we have definitely decided to offer a measure dealing with the superannuation of teachers at the next session of the Legislature. This measure will necessarily be affected by three considerations. First, a certain amount of public indifference on the subject. Second, hostility on the part of a portion of the teaching profession itself. Thirdly, the existence on the statute book of the old fund. Subject to the limitations imposed by these conditions we shall try to frame a measure just to the teachers and acceptable to the public, and any legislation of this kind must necessarily receive the endorsement of the great majority of the parties affected."

It would not be in accordance with the fitness of things if I were to add anything to the official statement which I have read, but so far as my own opinion is concerned I regard that as a binding promise which must be fulfilled and I augur the best results from it. I hope the Superannuation Committee of this Association, with which I have had a good many meetings, will be continued and that it will not cease its labours until we have this law upon the Statute Book.

The Minister has also asked me to direct your attention to the proposed Imperial Conference of Teachers, concerning which Mr. Doan has just read a letter from Mrs. Orde Marshall. The Minister feels that he can with confidence invite your countenance and support in behalf of the proposed convention. While the date of the Conference is not definitely settled, I see no reason to doubt that the date given in that letter will probably be the one.

viz., some time in the month of August, 1916. As you are aware, the holiday season differs in various parts of the Empire, and some communication must take place before a date suitable to all can be fixed upon, since time is needed to gather a representative body of educationists from all parts of the Empire. The Minister is very anxious also that there shall be a good attendance of Canadian teachers, and I feel sure he will learn with satisfaction that you have already appointed a Committee to deal with the matter on behalf of your Association. This Committee will be able to take up the work in common with the General Committee or with such committee as may be named representing the whole of Canada.

Now, sir, I have come to the end of the remarks which the Minister charged me to make, and I have great pleasure in wishing you a successful gathering and in extending to you the welcome which he had intended to give. The welcome includes not only yourself, Mr. President, in the worthy position which you hold in this Association, but also your distinguished guests, Professor Findlay and Dr. Cope.

A SIMPLIFIED SCHOOL PROGRAMME.

BY C. A. MAYBERRY, B.A., LL.B.

In what I have to say to-night, ladies and gentlemen, will be found nothing new, nothing startling. There will be rather the recitation of an old story, which has been often told in this Association during the past few years, and which I make no apology for introducing at this time; for, if it is true that in every System of Education, the first consideration is the personality of the teacher, the second consideration, at least, especially in a highly organized and centralized system like ours, is the workableness of the programme whose purpose it is to guide and direct the teacher. The importance of the subject, then, is the justification for its selection. Further, in what follows there is no censure for any man or any institution. I am giving a frank statement of the question as it appears to me, fully admitting the honesty and sincerity of those who oppose the views I offer and the changes I propose.

There is a deep-seated idea in this Province that all our school programmes are overloaded. To members of this Association who have attended the meetings of recent years, it has been evident that the teachers are practically of one mind on this subject. The teachers of both primary and secondary schools have repeatedly passed resolutions which have shown that, in their opinion, overcrowded programmes have been detrimental to efficient work in the schools. Not only have the teachers raised their voice against this overloading of the course, but, rightly or wrongly, the public has shown its disapproval. There is a widespread notion that the work done in our schools lacks that thoroughness which the people think it should possess, and while we may resent any imputation of unsatisfactory results, many of us are convinced that it is impossible under prevailing conditions to do the best kind of work for the pupils in our classes.

The causes which have led to the development of educational courses to their present proportions are not hard to discover. The increase in the sum of man's knowledge during the past fifty years is the most astounding fact in the history of the human race; in all departments of life experts have been reaching out in every

direction until to-day the mere schoolboy knows more facts about nature and science than the educated man of a century ago. Naturally the school programme has been extended; new subjects and new matter have been added. The argument has been freely used that our schools are the great means of spreading knowledge—that if the pupil leaves school without acquaintance with a great mass of facts of many subjects, it will be a disaster that can never subsequently be remedied. It must be admitted that this is a plausible line of reasoning. It ignores the fact, however, that human powers are limited, that the most that can be done by the average child or youth under the distracting influence of many subjects, produces but a sorry result—a jumbling of facts, a slipshod method of doing everything, and, worst of all, a loose habit of thinking, which, unless corrected later on, must prove fatal to any great success in life.

It is but fair to say that if the programme is overcrowded the fault is largely due to the teachers themselves. We have all urged the importance of our own subjects, overestimating the value of our particular branch, with too little thought of the effect on the programme as a whole. The sectional nature of this Association has intensified the pressure of special subjects; the consideration of the whole curriculum has been too much overloaded and undue importance given to the matters of minor value. A striking example of what has been done in many departments is the case of history, which has been of late years unreasonably emphasized in some quarters; in the University Honour Examination its examination value is two hundred marks, while the departments of Mathematics, Science, etc., are valued at twelve hundred marks; this ratio seems to be reasonable one; on the Normal Entrance Examination, History is equal in value to all the Mathematics required, or all the Science required, or all the Language Study required.

What is needed, as appears to me, is a thorough revision of the entire programme with the main consideration kept constantly in the foreground. And what is the main consideration in framing a programme? There cannot possibly be but one answer to this; it is the effect which it will have on the pupils who are to be influenced by it.

The matter of the curriculum resolves itself in the old question of the *multum* or the *multa*; in other words, of *intensive* or *extensive* studies, of mental training, or a disordered assemblage of the mind. The advocates of the broad and ambitious programme tell us that some things are to be studied *intensively*, thus securing for the student that training of the mind which is no doubt a necessary part of education; that others are to be studied extensively, with the object of giving a wide acquaintance with the facts of Nature, Science, History, etc. If this happy result can be realized, if it is possible for the average youth to acquire the training which gives a real power of application and at the same time get a *useful* knowledge of everything that is provided for him in our curricula, I am free to admit that the solution of the question would be an easy one; but it seems to be a common experience that the too extensive programme defeats itself in not allowing time for intensive thinking and in giving the student a great mass of information without insight.

There are certain things which, we will all agree, are all-important in the training of the young. Of these requisites I place first the formation of habit. Our very characters are the result of the habits we have formed. Accuracy and inaccuracy are habits; industry and idleness, efficiency and inefficiency cheerfulness and grouchesness, virtue and vice, in the long run, belong to this category. Success and all the satisfaction we get in life are the direct outcome of our habits. It is scarcely a matter of question that accuracy, thoroughness, power of application, cannot be acquired unless a considerable time is allowed for the cultivation of these habits. It is fatal to have a multitude of subjects toward which the mind must be directed. Concentration of the mind cannot be acquired where the student is forced from one thing to another with little time for each. Power of concentration does not come in the training a pupil receives under a ten-lesson programme each day. A dissipation of mental energy over too wide a course cannot but lead to habits of uncertainty and superficiality.

The Principal of a New York High School sent out fifty letters to the Principals of fifty different High Schools in the United States, asking a reply to the following question: What do you conceive to be the proper purpose of the High School?"

In five cases no answer was given. The following answers were received:—

- 6, To fit for college;
- 7, To earn a living;
- 18, To fit for life;
- 2, To the development of mind and hand;
- 3, Moral and ethical development;
- 3, Train many powers as possible;
- 1, Culture;
- 3, Efficiency;
- 1, Power to work;
- 3, Power to think;

These answers, at first sight, would indicate a variety of opinions as to the purpose of the High School. I have given these replies for the purpose of emphasizing my own answer to the question: The purpose of the High School is to develop the work habit. I know that many will register a protest against this statement, nevertheless I take my stand thereon. I have read much educational literature and have been greatly struck with the absence from the pedagogical mind of what to me is such an essential feature in the training of young people. Success in life depends upon successful work; it matters not what direction a man seeks advancement, the watchword is *work, work, work*; there is no satisfaction in life so great as that which comes from successful effort. School is not a preparation for life, school is life; and my duty is not to worry about preparing a boy for what he may be doing ten or twenty years hence, but to concern myself with what he is and what he is doing now. If he stands up and squarely faces his work and shirks not, I know that I have little reason to be anxious about his future.

The habit of concentration should begin in earnest at a comparatively early age, and is without doubt hampered by a course of study which too frequently directs the mind hither and thither. The effect of the work habit on moral character can scarcely be overestimated. From the experience of history, civilization and the increase of wealth appear to be unfavorable to the work habit and seem to foster idleness in both rich and poor, but much can be done in the school to counteract this tendency, and this aspect of the case is surely worthy of serious consideration.

The Relation of the University and Normal School to Primary and Secondary School.

Much has been said of the dominating influence of the University Matriculation and the Normal Entrance Examinations on the teaching and all the courses of the High School; of the too great attention paid in the Public School to the requirements of High School Entrance. The influence of our higher institutions of learning is, indeed, enormous. The stimulating effect of these institutions affords a motive compared with which all other motives are trifling. If there is any one thing the people of this country believe in that one thing is education. We sometimes hear complaints of the lack of public interest in Education, of the insufficiency of financial support. There is little ground for such complaint. I can think of no institution that is so sure of the support of people, none to which public funds are so ungrudgingly given, as the cause of educating the children and youth of this country.

The reason, as I have said, is that our people believe in Education. As soon as a child enters Public School the parents begin to think of the High School; as soon as he gets to the High School the tower of the University looms up in the hazy future. The boy in the town, the city and on the farm, on the borders of civilization, has an eye directed towards higher education. He sees in his Geography the picture of the University; his teachers tell him that the road is open to him if he has but the pluck to travel it; his parents heartily co-operate and encourage him. Themistocles said that the trophy erected to Miltiades at Marathon would not let him sleep. There are few ambitious minds among the young who do not feel the spur that urges to higher education. In fact it would be hard to exaggerate the effect of University influence on our whole educational system.

I speak somewhat at length on this point, because I believe that this great influence of the University and of professional examinations should not be at variance with the best course of High School training that can be devised for the great body of High School students, viz., those who do not go beyond the High School course. Of the whole number of students attending the High School, probably one-tenth reach the University, the Professional School, the Normal School or the Faculty of Education. What

should be considered more than heretofore in determining the High School course should be the interest of the average student. While of the attendance in the secondary schools at the present time, the number of students who will reach the University or the Professional School is as one to ten, it is quite within the mark to say that the influence of these institutions, compared with all other influences in determining the courses and the teaching for the whole body of secondary school students, is as ten to one.

Not only is this the case, but, to intensify the matter and complicate the course, the examinations for the University and teachers are differentiated. This condition of things and its influence on the High School cannot, I believe, be defended. What should be the main concern is the *general course*—the interest of the average student. We have, indeed, a general course, but on paper only; in reality there is no such course, because the general course is the road that leads to *nowhere*, and in this so-called practical age, a course that leads to a definite end, to a certificate, is the one selected by the student—and wisely so. The solution is this that the general course should lead to the same definite result. We like to talk about learning for its own sake, and examinations are decried as unworthy of an educational ideal, but that they are a great *stimulus* and lead to much useful effort and training by putting before the mind of youth a definite object, is beyond all doubt.

The remedy for this, as I have said, is to make the general course lead both to University Matriculation and Teachers' Examinations—these two examinations being unified—or a better way to express the idea would be this: The University and the Normal School shall accept the student who has finished the General Course of the High School successfully.

The major subjects of a High School programme or the subjects of the General Course.

I desire to take a stand firmly as an advocate of Science to give even an increased impulse to the study of genuine science in our schools. It cannot be denied that up to the present time the work in this department has on the whole been somewhat of a disappointment—it has not accomplished all we expected it to accomplish. It is a comparatively recent addition to our curriculum, and its admission has grudgingly been recognized by the champions of the old and long-established courses. Its appear-

ance certainly complicated a timetable that was already filled to the full, and it has suffered along with other subjects the evil effect of an overcrowded programme; but this is not the worst misfortune that has befallen it; there has been introduced and pushed beyond limit a pseudo-science that has been detrimental to the whole subject. It is true the old name of Nature Study is no longer the sole passport to educational responsibility, but the substance—*antiqua religio*—the old superstition is still too largely with us; endless collections, interminable notes, form one of the least useful and dreariest part of the school course both for pupils and for teachers. There is too wide a field in the real science of to-day to allow so great a dissipation of energy and time on matters of doubtful utility.

The Value of the Study of Languages.

The consideration of the study of language is of vital importance in determining the courses of the Secondary School. The time and effort now spent in this department are great, including history. I have calculated that in our school of twelve teachers, more than fifty per cent. of the total time and energy of the staff is expended on language teaching. Can this immense outlay be defended? Under conditions in which the great bulk of our pupils will never become more than indifferent students of foreign languages, I am bound to say that I believe a serious mistake is being made in placing too great an emphasis on these courses. Not only is the study of our own language stressed to the limit by the importance attached to Literature, Reading, a wide range of work in Composition both written and oral, Supplementary Reading and Grammar, but other languages are too much encouraged and demanded from the average candidate.

A man who knows anything of the history of education, and the brilliant results of a *continued* and thorough course in Classics or Moderns, can have only the highest opinion of such courses, any attempt to discourage the high scholarship and mental training such studies afford, would not be a wise move on the part of any educational authorities; but the pursuit of a foreign language for only a year or two, or even to pass matriculation, is another matter; it is but a beginning, a work carried on with much expense of time and effort, and it ends before real benefit has

accrued. There are hundreds—nay thousands—of High School students engaged in such studies, devoting a large portion of their time thereto, whose knowledge of these subjects will never be more than of an elementary character. It is exceedingly questionable if the training received by such students is an adequate *reward* for the labour spent, and we know that the practical results in the ordinary case are *nil*.

I believe it would be a wise move to discourage the widespread study of these languages and to encourage in a similar number of students the thorough study of the Classics or Moderns. If a high standard of scholarship were expected, and the work in the languages confined to those who are taking these special courses, it would be an advantage all round; such candidates would receive in the High Schools a thorough training and would be ready for a good course in the University, while those who now acquire only a doubtful knowledge would be enabled to use their time in some other department selected by them. I do not think it possible that the present condition can continue; the study of Greek has already passed away except for the Classical specialist; and modern languages, I believe, as far as the ordinary candidate in the High School is concerned, must meet a similar fate. The position of Latin is anomalous. If its retention can be justified on the ground of its value as a training for language it should be retained in its present position; if not, its doom seems fixed. Its present standing as a bonus subject is the result of a compromise for which I can find no place in an Educational System. A bonus is the support of the lame duck, and debases an Educational standard; a vigorous system should require no such crutch—not even a religious bonus.

I have been speaking of the departments of Language Study and Science, between which there has been more or less rivalry since Science came into the field and forced the older courses somewhat into the background. It remains to say a few words about the other great branch which always has held and always must hold such a commanding position in any organized system of education—I mean Mathematics. Fortunately this branch needs no defence; since the dawn of history it has held the foremost place among thinkers. It has been said that it is more valuable from any standpoint to a greater number of students of any grade than any subject that could be substituted for it. The study

of Mathematics accustoms the mind to form long trains of thought, methodically connected and sustained by the final certainty of the result. It has further the advantage, on purely moral grounds, of inspiring an absolute respect for truths. I cannot but express the conviction that, from the standpoint of mental training, it was a disaster when Arithmetic (and I may add Grammar) were removed from the Middle School course.

The Programme Itself.

The main objections that have been urged against the programme hitherto have sought relief from what has been considered an excessive amount of work required. There has been a mild protest against the idealized programme that looks so fair on paper and fits the mouth so well; whose perfection is thus described by an enthusiastic American educationist: "We have multiplied our subjects, extended the range of our subject-matter; enriched and enriched; introduced arts and crafts, games, plays, occupations, and industries, comprehensive schemes for training the body, head, hand and heart. We have democratized, socialized, kindergartenized, vitalized, motivized, psychologized our curriculum." In suggesting a reconsideration of the course, *this* is the great end to be aimed at—a course which can be covered in such a way that the students may acquire the prime object of all education, viz., mental power, habits of industry, sustained effort, thoroughness, ability to distinguish the real from the sham, an acquaintance with general principles rather than information without insight. This will require, not a trifling reduction here or there, but a generous pruning of the Tree of Human Knowledge. A good many branches will have to be lopped off, but the quality of the fruit will more than compensate for the loss.

In arranging this High School programme the following principles have been kept in view:

(1) The elimination *in toto* from the High School course of formal teaching in purely Public School subjects. There has been a divided responsibility heretofore between the secondary and primary schools in regard to certain elementary subjects: it has been detrimental to both; it has excused definiteness and thoroughness in the Public School on the ground that the High School could

remedy the defect; and it complicated the High School course, which was already too heavily burdened.

(2) The interest of the great body of High School students should be paramount—not the interest of one in ten.

(3) The course should be such that at whatever stage the pupil leaves school, he shall have had the most effective training during the time of his attendance.

(4) At the end of the course, successfully completed, he shall be prepared for University Entrance or a Professional School of any kind.

Under the first head we would eliminate the classes in Reading, Writing, Spelling and Geography.

The subjects of the general course would embrace, as I have indicated, English, Science, and Mathematics. There is one other subject which has strong claims for recognition in this list. The vitality of Latin as a school study is remarkable; it holds a unique place in all educational systems. It cannot be doubted that as a training in the principles of language it is the best known instrument. Practically all colleges require it as an entrance subject; our own Education Department has recognized its importance by giving it the usual distinction of a bonus subject for Teachers' Examination. My own opinion is that if it can be shown that it possesses the value usually accorded it as a training in language, the teacher above all others should have that training. Personally, of course, I should favour its retention on the course for both the University and Professional examinations; but I leave the settlement of this question with younger and wiser heads.

Examinations.

The wisdom of the action of the University and the Department of Education in unifying their entrance examinations has been proven beyond any doubt. The examination held by the Department of Education during recent years, notwithstanding minor mistakes, have been the best conducted, most reliable and most satisfactory examinations ever held in the Province. It is difficult, however, to see why there should be two sets of papers and two sets of examiners. The question of the superior excellence of either set of papers is trivial. Each has shown mistakes of judgment.

If there is any special virtue on either side, they should both be united and all the virtue show in the one paper. The complete unifying of these examinations would remove what has been hitherto a decided disadvantage to many students by giving the High School graduate the double certificate; while the present system debars many who subsequently desire to enter the University or teaching from doing so.

I have given what seems to me the main points of what might be a reconstructed programme. Any further details would be a matter of minor importance, and not be further discussed here.

I have tried to consider the whole case from the standpoint of the training of our young people. If these ideas of education as a permanent possession are correct, they will prevail; if not, they will not prevail. Only when we are agreed that education does not consist in the multitude of facts that people absorb, but in the upbuilding of the mind, shall we have a change; when educationists recognize that culture is not a sort of superficial polish, the result of inexact and ill-digested knowledge, but *power*, then shall we be on solid ground. If we insist that the *ability to do* as well as to know is a great object of training, an era will be marked in the history of education. Not that we are to neglect poetry and the exercise of the imagination and these things which tend to yield a more complete satisfaction in life. But we should remember we are educating the child to take his part in life. Our whole aim should be to make him an efficient worker in the world. The Irish engine-driver defined the educated man as "the man who was onto his job." What better description do you ask? For, after all, there is no satisfaction in the world so great as that which comes from the conviction that one is able to do his work well. A man's glory is in his strength, and real strength is not displayed in show or trivialities, but in the real business of life—the constant grind, the Eternal Every Day. Preparation for this is not along the easy and primrose path, but in a somewhat severe course of thinking in the line of one's lifework. If this is true, and we believe it, we will have no difficulty in changing things, to meet our views.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN THE LIGHT OF A NEW DAY.

By HENRY F. COPE, D.D.

Ladies and Gentlemen:—As General Secretary of the R. E. A., and a member of the N. E. A., it gives me great pleasure to address the O. E. A.

The teachers believe in education as a process of developing lives: as the directed evolution of all lives; they hold a high purpose and aim, that of bringing lives to their full efficiency in harmony with the whole world, to an understanding of their world and to the rendering of full service to their age. Religious education in the light of a new day has two aspects: first, it stands for that kind of education which most completely meets the needs of a new day and second, it insists upon all education as interpreted in the terms of the religious concepts of this day. We always have thought we were just on the dawn of a new day. At least each generation of college graduates has so declared at some time, either in the old time graduating oration or in the debating class or out of their own consciousness; that because they stepped forth upon the stage their advent meant a new day. And so it does. Each generation sees a new day. The process of time is never standing still. For the story of man's growth goes ever on and progress is unchanging. So long as we are human beings we cry with Browning:

“Progress! Progress! Man's mark alone.

“Not God's, and not the beasts': God is, they are,

“Man partly is and wholly hopes to be.”

That onpush of the race moves slowly, silently, like the river, yet ever it is bringing us to new scenes and every day laying new burdens on the breast of the river. Man never sees to-morrow as to-day has been. The work of the educator is to prepare this youth life for this new day that ever dawns.

This is the age of faith in progress. We believe in the forward movement of the ages. We expect to keep time in forward step to the music of the spheres. The world unfolds and man is in his unfolding. Do we apply this faith to our educational ideals and practice? Do we believe that a new day demands new ideals, and set the standards farther forward and higher up? Do we believe that we have to do, in education, with higher powers and farther

reaches of a finer being, that as man grows more spiritual so must education move in the same direction? Do we hold our faith in this universe as governed by the law of development up to the level where it means the highest development of ourselves and our race?

There are some peculiar marks of a new day; some peculiar marks of changes in our ways and standards of thinking that we ought to have in mind in thinking of the education of young people. The first outstanding mark of our era is that we are in transition, in this age of science, from the dominance of physical science to the service of science for the sake of society. We have been living in an age of the dominance of the scientific idea. We stand indebted to it. Applying science to the world about us we have stepped from the spinning-wheel to the cotton mill; from the hand sickle to the reaping and threshing machine; from the stage coach to the flying machine; from the needle in the hands of our grandmothers to the swift sewing machine. Science has brought us the conveniences of this modern, complex life. It has bound all this world together inseparably. It has cast Puck's girdle about the earth and tied the nations into the unity of a single community. To-day people who live in China are nearer to us who live here than the boys who lived at the other end of the city in which I was born were to me then. Uniting the world we have laid before its untutored fingers the keys of nature and behold how she plays on them! We have stepped from David's shepherd sling to a modern coast artillery gun, but have we stepped as far as that from David; from the needle in the hand of Dorcas to the sewing machine, but have we made any corresponding stride from Dorcas? We have applied science to industry; we are coming to the day when we will begin to apply science to life itself. It was but natural we should begin on the level of the physical; that we should lay there a foundation, to set our feet down upon the soil. But we must turn from thinking of the soil to thinking of the man who treads upon it and of the eternal life above them to whom they all render their service. We have studied how to improve the tools of life, have we studied, in any like degree, how to use the powers of life, waiting for us to play upon them? We have made long strides in the mechanism of life. We are at the dawn of the day when our boys and girls must apply the machinery of life to life itself.

We come to a new day, too, in the realm of ideals. Some one says, "Is it possible that our moral thinking, our ethics will change?" They must change! They must change if the race lives and grows and moves along to new and higher planes. The great business of humanity, of each new generation, is to take the push of yesterday and carry it on to the new level of to-morrow, and, if we have lived at all, we have always lifted ourselves and the next generation somehow to a higher plane. The test of any life is not whether it has kept the standards of the fathers but whether it has pushed forward. Standards are not landmarks; they are leading marks. Ideals and ethical standards are not survey marks; they are signals calling us onward. A great change is taking place as to the ethical standards of the day, a change that is due to the increasing complexity of modern life. A man could be a fairly decent kind of a saint, perhaps, living all alone. Nobody knows, because no one has tried it. He could be a fairly respectable kind of man when he only had a few neighbors in the scattered little village, but it takes a great deal of grace to be a saint in a factory or on a city street on an umbrella morning. To live with other people, that is the fine art we must learn more and more as other lives are crowding in upon us. Most of us could be saints if sainthood were a simple matter of living alone or living in heaven. We have to live upon earth where wings have not grown and where people are very much like we are. New standards are demanded of us under social pressure. A Chicago newspaper has just published a half page declaration: "This newspaper will henceforth print no liquor ads. of any kind." The newspaper said: "We will henceforth print no liquor ads. Here is the reason: Our newspaper enters many homes—we take no position on whether it is right or wrong to drink intoxicants—but we do not believe we ought to use our influence as a newspaper to help the drinking of intoxicants by young people in homes." That is a new kind of ethics for a newspaper. It is the kind that is going to grow. It is the kind of ethics that is coming into business. Men who were accusomed to do business years ago in the old days—when "business was business"—have come back today to find that business is developing a sense of social responsibility. A new ethical standard is coming in that will make new demands on our boys and girls; they will discover that the old axiom, honesty is the best policy, will not be adequate prepara-

tion for the kind of life they will have to live and for the demands that will be made upon them. In this increasing solidarity of life new temptations come to us. The man who could live his regular farmer's life with its freedom, with little responsibility for others beyond his immediate neighbors, now comes into a place of power, where thousands of lives are at his disposal; he has new responsibility and new temptations, so that he must have before him new ethical standards or he will be swept away by the temptations of power in a new age.

We are coming next to a new age in the spirit of this very world solidarity; a new age of internationalism. I was brought up as a boy to believe and I suppose I did believe—I can feel it in my bones when I think back now as I stood upon the streets of London during one of the Russian war scares—that every Russian was born in furs and walked like a bear, and that the business of an Englishman—an easily accomplished business—was to kill three or four before breakfast. We can all think back to the old spirit of alleged patriotism that taught us that love for our country practically meant hatred of every other country, or at least a failure in any degree to esteem them. But we have been thrown together. I have learned to know many a Russian, and find he does not walk on all fours nor is he born apparently with fur. One learns to esteem people all over the world, and to believe that God has made of one blood all men to dwell upon the face of the earth; that has become the creed of our new day and our new humanity. That is something more than a feeling of kind benevolence, of superiority, to other nations. It is more than simply singing about the brotherhood of the world. This new internationalism will throw us into this close union with other nations so that we will have to learn to live life partly from their point of view as well as to teach them to live from our point of view. It means more than to send people to other nations to show them how good God is. We will never get a satisfactory way of world-thinking until we think of this world in terms of a family. For the great secret of a family is that it is ideally organized as that social unit which sets before itself the business of making the strong responsible for the weak and causing the love of all to lift the life of all to the highest level of all. The business of the father and mother is to lay down life for children and the business of properly educated older brothers and sisters is

to feel that they live for the sake of younger ones, so that in the true family unity there is that sense of brotherhood, not as sentiment but as willingness for service and sacrifice.

We are coming upon a new day in which we shall interpret the lives of other people in the terms of real democracy. We all talk a great deal about democracy, but are only just beginning to find out what it really means. We prate of government of the people, by the people and for the people, and tend to emphasize greatly the first two of those three statements. But government of the people, by the people and *for the people* are all essential to democracy. Democracy simply means that type of government which is organized for the sake of the people; a civic, common organization ordered for the purpose of growing people and making people. Some day we will come to that spirit of common world unity of purpose which will see that commerce and travel, industry and trade are all ties that bind us together as nations and are as the parts of a great machine that work together to grow humanity. We shall interpret our common world life in terms of the eternal human values and test it by spiritual efficiency. Somehow we shall see that our relations with China are not a question of how much goods we can sell in China, but how by co-operating with China we are growing a finer human race. We sent out from the office of our organization not long ago some thousands of appeals for a little act of sacrifice and the first answer that came in was from a Chinaman. Some day our boys and girls who come after us will think not in terms of national patriotism, but in terms of that higher national patriotism which means national service for the sake of a common humanity.

These are some of the demands that the new day is making upon us. A demand, first of all, that we shall put life in its proper place in the realm of science; a demand that we get ready for rising ideals and higher ethical levels; a demand that we learn to live together as one people on the face of this earth.

What has religious education to do with that? Religious education for that new day will be first of all an interpretation of all education in terms of religion. I personally greatly deprecate any endeavor anywhere to interpret religious education simply as a process of the impartation of information about religion. No amount of information about religion can effect transforma-

tion into a religious type of character. Religious education for the new day is, first of all, the business of getting boys and girls and men and women ready to live in this new day in religious terms. And I doubt if there will ever be any terms of life which will be adequate to fit us as men and women to live in the new day and to meet its demands than just taking life as a chance to realize for ourselves its highest values and to render to it our largest service. Surely that is the ultimate interpretation of religion—to find the values of all life and to give to this life and this age such service in fullness and efficiency as one may give, and whatever else may be, as much there must be, the historical, the mystical element of faith and vision, it simply backs up all that meaning of life and makes it have reality to us.

Now, then, here is a man and woman in this public school, what can he do or she do to get this boy ready for the day that comes by way of religious education? Shall it be an attempt alone to teach the things of religion or shall it not be first of all the development of the deep consciousness within ourselves that whenever we teach a human being we are touching divine factors. Whoever teaches a life so to grow that it realizes the beauty and meaning of life and desires to live fully and to give itself in service is doing religious work in that teaching.

I would that we could develop in our public school in all parts of this country a consciousness of the real religious value of the thing that we are now doing. I meet college students who say to me: "How can I realize the religious life? If I could only get out of this college atmosphere or get somewhere else." And I find men in every walk looking for some niche in which they can climb and realize their religious life. But it is always to be found just where we are. The most religious thing anyone can do is to do the thing they ought to do with a religious motive. The thing I ought to do as a teacher is to teach, not savages, but boys and girls as religious persons. I positively learned more religion when I was a boy in school in England out of the man who taught me English history than I did from the man who came for forty-five minutes in the morning and taught me things about prophets and priests and other people who had been dead a long while.

First of all then to interpret all education in terms of religion, as dealing with religious persons and for religious purposes, to

get that person ready for life, to train his powers so that he shall efficiently give the whole of his life in service to his day. We need the kind of religion that makes every boy cry out with his whole nature, "Oh, to be a man that I may do a man's work in the world." And then, second, to see to it in the whole of our education that we do not deprive any boy or girl or man or woman of what I will term colloquially "the push of their past." We are where we are to-day because of what our fathers believed, because of ideals that they held. I believe myself in the power of Christian ideals. For my own children I feel I would be robbing them in depriving them of the push of the ideals of yesterday. Whatever has helped to make to-day must be thrown into to-day as part of its contribution for to-morrow. I doubt if ever we can maintain civilization such as we would maintain if we take away from it the ideals of freedom and faith that our fathers held. But where shall the children get those ideals? One can only hint at an answer. First of all we have to strengthen that particular religious institution in human society, the Church, and make the Church of to-day competent to teach the children of to-day, the men and women of to-day, the real religious values of the faith they hold. It is folly to urge that the public school is incompetent because it does not teach religious history and philosophy, until the Church shall prove itself competent to teach its own children religious history and literature. And when the Church of to-day takes the child of to-day as seriously as the State takes the child and makes an investment in the child equivalent to that which the State makes in the child through the schools, we will know that the Church means business. If there is one institution to-day that needs stirring up to realize the place of the child in our modern institutions and the demands that are to be made on that child it is the Church. She must become equal to her task of giving to the child its full religious heritage. And there is where the school teachers can step right in. A great opportunity is before those who have had your chances and training. Do not take a cold, critical attitude to the Church and stand outside and say it is no good. Get in, make it what it ought to be! If we could only realize that together the Church and School are the twin great institutions of our modern life that are making our childhood and determining the civilization of to-morrow; they must work as one.

Religious education for this new day must mean this one thing in particular above all other things; that we give these boys and girls of to-morrow such an interpretation of life that they take their lives as a chance to do worthy, ideal service. Every boy and every girl—yes every man and every woman—needs to have some big cause to live for; some tremendous motive to persuade their action. Men are good no longer because of codes that regulate their conduct specifically. Nor were they ever. They achieve goodness by the impulse of new affections and ideals and aspirations. We have been educating our youth to a critical attitude to all of life and all things about them; we turn them out of school saying: “there is no good thing under the sun and no cause that is worthy, and the only thing to do is to settle down in an attitude of indifference to life.” God forgive the college professors or teachers anywhere who have treated youth’s ideals with cynicism and with the frost of their experience have blasted the buds of youth’s hope. If there is one thing to be cherished in boys and girls it is their dream that they can shake this world. I remember one time walking with a lad who suddenly stopped and, striking his cane in the earth, said: “The times are out of joint. Oh, cursed spite that ever I was born to set them right!” That boy believed, as every boy ought to believe, that he was born to set the world right. I would rather believe that all my life and be fooled at it than believe that the world is going to the bow-wows and all I can do is sit beside the road and bark. Give these boys and girls a sense of a mission in life; create enthusiasm for country, for the world and for service of their fellows. Religious education will make any man or woman or boy or girl take life as their chance to be all that they may be in order to give all that they are in service to their world. That is what the church must do for boys or girls; show to them the fullest service and how they can be made fit for it. That is what the school must do for us to-day, not sending out walking warehouses of information, but using every item of information to transform and clarify the meaning of life and helping boys and girls to see life as their chance to serve and, cherishing the idealism of youth, apply it to the problems of manhood and womanhood in to-morrow. Then religious education will mean that we see that we are educating religious persons; that we see to it that we preserve to them all that religious heritage of their fathers that is full of vitality for to-day.

LABOUR AND LEARNING.

BY PROFESSOR J. J. FINDLAY.

While crossing the ocean last week I came across a book* by a man who, I presume, is for the moment more in the public eye on this Continent than any one else. I am, of course, not concerned with the political opinions which he expounds; if I were competent to treat of these, it would be an impertinence for me to venture into that field; but I was impressed with the standpoint from which he approaches the political situation—he avers that statesmen go astray because they have lost touch with the changing conditions of society; they do not feel the pulse of the rising generation, of those profound inarticulate movements, which, when the crisis comes, may change the face of a world. In particular he shows how the founders of that great republic planned a scheme of political order adapted to a social economy which since that day has been transformed. Now, whether or no this be true of politics on this side of the water, I am very sure that it represents the situation in education both as regards practice and theory. We teachers appear to be always “a day behind the fair”; while we continue to discuss our methods on the basis of old familiar data, a new epoch seems to be sweeping the ground from under us: we rub our eyes and find ourselves confronted with a new world—with faltering steps we try to follow the behests of new commandments, whose message never penetrated to our ears, confined as we are within the cloistered walls of our academies. If this be so, the road to reform lies in a more thorough diagnosis, reverting to the phenomena which accompanied in the last century the rise and growth of the educational machine; taking within our purview features of social and economic activity which are commonly omitted by those who treat of educational history. If we can trace in outline the nature of this activity we shall then, I trust, be able to lay our hand on the influences which are now at work to change the current of educational reform, both in America and in Europe.

* *The New Freedom*, by President Woodrow Wilson.

2. Our system of public elementary education took its rise in the first half of the nineteenth century; its ideal dated from a much earlier epoch, but the system, the machinery adopted to achieve the ideal, was devised under the influences of the Industrial Revolution. The entire outlook of society had been transformed by the discoveries associated with coal, iron and steam; the views of what came to be known as the Manchester School were adapted to the educational situation along with other novel problems which that epoch had to face. I need not pause to sketch those views in detail. Crudely stated they expressed a belief in the laws of competition and the struggle for existence, tempered by a benevolent love of mankind, which prevented that creed from working out the pitiless results of its logic. The adoption of wholesale mechanical methods of production and exchange in place of the personal and detailed procedure of previous ages brought men into new relations with each other. Men came to believe in numbers, in mechanical force, to believe that wholesale methods, which were producing such stupendous results in factories and warehouses, could be applied with equal effect to the life of the spirit. The impersonal ballot, with a candidate appealing to thousands replaced the hustings; the impersonal newspaper replaced the social exchange of market place and village street; the railway train not only carried goods and men with great rapidity, but it broke up the social exchange of the stage coach and the carrier's cart. In the same way men believed that a universal wholesale machinery for the distribution of the Three R's could operate with effect for the intellectual and moral salvation of the young. In England, where the Industrial Revolution found the theatre for its most effective working, we can witness the result of this new life more strikingly than elsewhere; but the entire western world shared both the benefits and the evils which accrued.

3. Now if the laws of industrial freedom had been permitted to work unfettered upon childrens' lives compulsory schooling would never have been introduced. For the factory could make even more use of child labour than the farm had done. But, as we saw, the operation of these laws was happily tempered by philanthropy; the child became an object of genuine sympathy. Wordsworth, and then Dickens, in England, Pestalozzi and Froebel in Germany, were the mouthpieces of a new enthusiasm unknown

to previous ages, of a spirit which was an integral part of the Christian gospel, but which never asserted itself as a national sentiment until the days of our grandfathers. Thus the little children were saved from the factories and shepherded in schools. Our grandfathers indeed developed an extraordinary faith in the possibilities of school; great leaders like Brougham, thinkers like James Mill were possessed with a faith in what they called Education as the grand cure for national ills. But the reality fell far short of the ideal; for the scholastic system, as actually established, inevitably conformed to the mechanical régime to which we have alluded.

To judge of the play of cause and effect, let us note the influences which shaped the child's experience before this industrial era set in: before school lessons and school life intruded on the child's attention. Along with his parents he was employed, so far as his powers permitted, in domestic and industrial pursuits. Nature as shaped by human needs, was near to him; the kitchen, the workshop, the open air were near to him, and afforded both recreation and employment. Tools, with all that the use of tools implies, were his constant companions, and evoked from him a daily response; the simple realities of life were always in the focus of attention. Even if his parents were better off and sent him to school, lessons were not of paramount interest; the children of the well-to-do helped in common service and shared in domestic duties.

And further, while in all these tasks, the child was subservient to his elders (often, alas, not only repressed but cruelly oppressed), he was always an individual, he was not lost in a crowd; his personality and will had some outlet. True his experience was bound within a small range of practical interests; unless his parents were exceptional, he was grievously excluded from intellectual or æsthetic experience, but yet the life he lived was *real*; it gave him acquaintance at first-hand—to adopt our biological jargon, he was adjusted to his environment. The Industrial Revolution, in transferring the labourer from city to town radically altered the home as a means of education. In the old days the child found in his cottage and its environment most of the resources of material welfare; local products, in bread, clothing, shelter were the web and woof of his daily experience. Now the home is little more than a temporary shelter; the abiding effect

produced on a young mind by association of time and place, of use and wont are no longer at his disposal.

Let me pause to point out that I am dealing only with the great mass of children; there are plenty of exceptions; in any audience of teachers the great majority will be exceptions. We are concerned with the multitude who have grown from infancy to age under a new industrial and social régime, and exhibit by the million the features of a type.

What, then, did the scholastic system of the 19th century offer as a substitute for the education at which we have glanced? Briefly put, it offered Learning in place of Labour; a literary and academic tradition, coming (as Lord Haldane recently described it) "from above"; a culture infused with lofty ideals, but dispensed by an elevated class, whose views of life were alien from the needs of the toiling multitude; a culture, too, which had been offered in earlier ages rather to adults than to the immature minds of children.

4. But that was not all. We noted how the Industrial Revolution taught men a new faith in the efficacy of numbers, of machinery, of dealing with the wholesale. Thus in spite of the love and sympathy which inspired many of those who promoted popular schooling, the system as carried out, inevitably reproduced those mechanical features which, to men of that epoch, were a great discovery.

In books of educational history you will find pictures of the Model School which Lancaster and others set up to show how hundreds of little children could be collected and taught their letters at once. The rows of children, the monitors with the teacher as overseer, closely resemble a diagram of a Lancashire weaving shed, with a foreman in charge of twenty hands, each of whom in turn watches the behaviour of a set of looms. Our ancestors applied the doctrine of machinery with great thoroughness; bricks and mortar were cheap, slates for the roof and slates for the children were afforded with equal facility; teachers were rapidly adapted to the process and paid at strictly competitive rates. Thus the child was placed in a Three R's factory which by its very nature required him to drop his personal life in order to fit into the machine.

At first this machine was rude and awkward, but as was the case with the factories so in the schools, the system became more

and more developed; new subjects were introduced, refinements of method adopted. Just as in commerce and industry the nineteenth century elaborated the scale of its procedure until a gigantic scheme of national organization enfolds the whole community, so national education emerges, a complicated interwoven system, with Ministers of Education, Grants, Inspectors, Codes—a perfection of mechanical appliances specialized to the highest degree to maintain the fabric of national culture. The more efficient this machine becomes, the vaster the scale on which it operates, the less chance is there for the individual, whether teacher or child, to find scope for himself. The workman has become a specialized tool of industry, able to secure his means of subsistence on a narrow line of output that touches life only at a single point; width of judgment, variety of experience become a hindrance rather than a means of gain. And the teacher tends to follow the same type and discharge his office as a specialist, training the young in the artificial art of learning school lessons.

Thus many of the reforms and improvements adopted as the years passed by—the introduction of object lessons, of drawing, of “occupations” were inevitably run into the scholastic mould, and while increasing the hold which the school had secured over the young, did little to restore to the child what he had lost. Many of these reforms were adopted from the best of motives; it was felt that in earlier days both home and school had treated the child with harshness and severity; the puritan discipline of our forefathers was abandoned and the teacher was bidden to “interest” the child; but the substitution of a “soft pedagogy” which merely aims to relieve the tedium of the school day has served to weaken the force of external discipline, and has made the schoolroom a pleasant place of resort, but has done little to give the child that foundation of character which comes from closer contact with affairs, from individual action on his own behalf. The subtle influences of democracy, of the humanitarian spirit have destroyed the efficacy of school as a repressive force, but the way to restore the balance between indulgence and discipline is still to be found.

5. Until the latter part of the last century, this scholastic system was concerned almost wholly with young children, but in later years a new aspect of the problem has been presented, which in some respects recalls the situation of a century ago. When the

factory system began, child labour was largely employed, and many employers declared that this form of help was necessary to maintain the trade; the conscience of the community was aroused, and except in backward regions, such as Georgia, in the United States, and part of Lancashire, in England, it has been found possible for industry to flourish without enlisting the hands and feet of little children. But the labour of youths, boys and girls of thirteen and upwards, is still highly prized; with the development of perfection in machines, the labour of a boy or girl at sixteen is often highly prized, and is worth more to an employer than that of men and women. The youth has virtually become an independent wage-earner and, except for the slight control still exercised by family or state, he is released from control. Up to the eighteenth century no nation, whether savage or civilized, let go its hold upon the adolescent until the age of eighteen, but our industrial system has demanded their services and by abandoning the discipline of apprenticeship has left us with a situation unparalleled in the history of mankind. Slowly the conscience of our communities is being aroused, for the forlorn condition of wage-earning boys and girls in our great cities is patent enough to all who glance at problems of social reform. So far all that has been done is to propose an extension of the scholastic system, so that, as in Germany, some sort of instruction, chiefly on vocational lines, shall be continued beyond the years of the elementary school. But even if the resistance of employers can be overcome, it is doubtful whether an extension of school lessons will by itself do much to provide for the new social and intellectual needs which the period of adolescence opens up in the life of boys and girls. This is, however, a theme which takes us beyond the purpose of this paper and is mentioned only to show how the evolution of industry and of city life raises new anxieties for the teacher as for all other workers in the field of social progress.

6. Reverting to the system as it was left to us by the nineteenth century, we have to admit that while public education is still supported with some enthusiasm, doubts of its efficacy are widespread; the old and simple faith in book learning is dead; much good has been done, but critics with each decade are gaining a wider hearing. Our people are assembled in "masses"; and great nations before to-day, such as China, have decayed when mechani-

cal schemes of instruction have been relied on to raise the masses to a higher level. We can produce, and feed, and teach lessons, to millions at a time: can we educate them? can we, that is, give to each the foundations for a life that is worth while? This is the question which all who speak and write on school reform must face.

Before attempting an answer, let us note that two arguments are often tacitly employed to defend the *status quo*. (1) It is pointed out that modern industry requires an immense number of hands, *i.e.* of unskilled mechanical people who are just fit to turn handles and can be happily and usefully employed at that level; if therefore the scholastic system turns out millions of such, ready to feed our machines and discharge our mechanical tasks, so much the better for "us." (2) It is said that the few individuals who possess native power can always force their way through this crowd and can "make good," forging ahead and struggling to the top, on the principle of the survival of the fittest. I do not pause to answer these pleas: they are part of the philosophy of the era of unchecked competition: in ultimate analysis both rely upon a theory of life which is anti-social and would at long range destroy any community that adhered to them.

7. I have dwelt at this length upon the rise of our educational system in the last century because I feel it necessary for us to approach the task of reconstruction in a favorable attitude of mind. If what I have put before you by way of criticism is true it is not merely true but immensely important; it lays upon us the necessity of revising our whole conception of the teacher's business; it may require us to begin our thinking *de novo*, prepared if need be, to scrap our whole equipment instead of attempting to patch it here and there. Now this is not an easy task for any thinker; most of us in this room have been engaged for years in helping to build laboriously and devotedly the programme of national education and to attempt to re-think the scheme is not easy. And yet I believe what is needed in these years, more than aught else, both by teachers and laymen is an absolutely open mind, ready in the interest of truth to cut loose from all the traditions of the academy.

For the first line of constructive reform is to recognize that the nineteenth century afforded some compensation for the ills which it inflicted on us; it taught men to believe in truth after

a new fashion; to believe, that is, in science, in objective in personal investigation. What Bacon and a few leaders had inculcated in earlier ages now became applied as a constant guide to conduct in many departments of life. It has only been applied grudgingly to the realm of social conduct; the affairs of the school and the nature of the child are the last to be included within its range, but the method has come to stay; men everywhere are willing to act upon truth scientifically demonstrated and to encourage those who search for truth in matters of education, distrusting those who act merely from the prejudice of tradition.

Herbert Spencer's essays are a curious example of the confusion of truth and error in this field. Passionately devoted to scientific method, he pleaded for the application of science to education, but instead of carrying out his plea by investigating the nature and needs of childhood, he was content merely to add science to the curriculum, fondly believing that mothers would rear their children wisely if they had received instruction in physiology. We know better now; certainly we have improved the curriculum a little by giving a place to natural science, but we are under no delusion; the child cannot adjust his mind, at the various stages of his development, to the world of science merely by receiving lessons in laboratories.

We honour the memory of Herbert Spencer, of Huxley and the rest, most sincerely by applying the scientific method to the whole problem of schooling, by investigating the physical and mental nature of the child without taking for granted any of the pre-suppositions to which the scholastic system has habituated the popular mind. Although this system still holds sway and may continue for many a generation, we can trace right through the nineteenth century a line of search for truth, of which Pestalozzi was the forerunner, which in these days has been developed by students of children's ways. Stanley Hall and Dewey in America, Thomas Arnold and Sully in England, Kerschensteiner in Germany, Montessori in Italy may be cited as examples.

8. Now although their achievements have only slightly modified as yet the regular practice of teachers and of school authorities, they have carried us to the point where we can anticipate with confidence the course which educational reform is bound to follow in days to come. On the one hand the pursuits permitted to children at school will be reshaped in view of the varying powers

of the child from infancy to mature life; on the other hand the corporate life of the school will be reshaped to answer to the social needs of children; the first reform is psychological, based upon genetic studies of child development, the second is sociological, applying our conceptions of the nature of the social organism to the special type which we create when we associate children in numbers within the school grounds.

To expound in detail the working of these conceptions would carry us far beyond the limit of this paper, but by reverting to the diagnosis with which we set out, we can note the general trend of reform in both these directions. The scholastic system ignored and repressed child nature by depriving him of the natural channels of experience, inventing a *school-child*, as a conventional type of human organism which responds to scholastic requirements. The reformers seeking to get back to "Nature" have advocated science, drawing, and above all manual training, because these, if pursued without pedantry, are a part of everyday experience. Handicrafts above all, because the child up to the year of adolescence becomes acquainted with the world about him through tools, through motor activity rather than discussion or verbal information. Thus the teacher of the young will hereafter be required to be a craftsman rather than a scholar. The classroom with fixed desks, compelling the child to rigidity, facing the teacher who dispenses language, will disappear as the gallery for infants has already disappeared; freedom of movement from place to place, with projects to accomplish which have practical ends, will be accepted as the normal condition in which children will be found during attendance at school. And not only craftsman and craftswoman, but nurse: for the medical profession has intruded within our domain and is compelling us to regard the child not only as a thinker and a handworker, but as a physical organism which can be trained to cultivate and honour the human body. So far this intrusion has gone little beyond medical inspection with lectures to teachers on hygiene, but there is no question that the study of children's physical life is already enforcing the claim of child study to break up the scholastic régime and afford to children the physical freedom which their nature has always demanded.

Thus, without rejecting the place of letters and the discipline of industry, one can foresee that the effort to reconcile Labour and Learning, the academy and the workshop, will find its most power-

ful resource in the application of scientific method to the study of child nature.

9. Finally our diagnosis revealed the failure of the scholastic system to cope with the immense number of children who are supposed to be educated by attendance at lessons. The theory was individualistic while the situation which the theory had to face was a social situation. School is a community and the strongest influences which affect the scholar are not those dispensed by curriculum or teacher, but by his comrades; a huge impersonal machine with hundreds of scholars, with a large corps of teachers, whose interests are often more urgently claimed by inspectors and officials than by the children, can achieve little for the solitary unit. Social science is seeking to solve this problem in all its aspects in our large cities and it cannot fail to strike at the school system along with the other institutions of our life which depress the common man. The leisured classes have always been more fortunate; teachers like Arnold of Rugby long ago studied and practised principles of corporate life for the school society, which have immensely benefited the development of the few lads whose parents can afford the price; it is the task of a democratic community to distribute to the mass of the people all that has been found of value in the experience of the few. Hence it is only a matter of time before we witness the application of social psychology to the field of education, ranking the teacher rather as a worker than as a dispenser of learning, and the child as an active comrade with his fellows rather than the recipient of scholastic gifts.

I should be sorry if the attention I have given in this paper to criticism of the past should leave an impression of pessimism and discouragement, for that is certainly not the mood in which I myself regard the outlook for our profession. Not for one moment do I desire to put back the clock; we can no more revert to the simple discipline of our forefathers than we can revive the handloom of primitive industry. Nor do I seek to deny the immense, if partial, benefit which the adoption of universal schooling has conferred upon our race. But I assert that we are only at the beginning of a rational scientific treatment of education, exactly as we are only at the beginning of a rational treatment of the masses of our countrymen in other fields of social order, in housing, in art, in literature or in politics. The nineteenth century

created these problems for us and our task is at least to discern their nature and investigate the facts on which a better order of humanity can be constructed.

The effort is not easy, even in thought, and in the carrying out plenty of opposition, with apparent failure, will be the lot of those who attack a system so entrenched by custom and prestige. But the human spirit is not always crushed by the tyranny of system. And in our case we are sustained by a great faith, for our children, the children of the common people, are born to us with all the possibilities and capacities which we have inherited; give them a better environment, give them individual scope for body and mind, and they in their own time and by their own energy will triumph over all the hindrances that seem to thwart our endeavours. This is the creed of the teacher, faith in posterity, faith that our children if we give them of our best will stretch their wings and soar to heights that are beyond our ken. Much as the nineteenth century did of evil, it gave men at least a new regard for these little ones, and taught us to revert with new hope to that long-forgotten message of the Gospel—"of such is the Kingdom of Heaven."

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

THE EDUCATION OF THE ADOLESCENT.

BY PETER SANDIFORD, M.Sc., PH.D., TORONTO.

The subject of the education of the adolescent is far too big to be dismissed in a brief half-hour's lecture, or, for that matter, in a score of such. Two courses are open to me. Either I must confine myself to some limited topic within the field and try to give a fairly exhaustive account of it, or I must skim lightly over the whole subject touching up on points which are of especial importance to us as educators. With your permission, I propose to adopt the second alternative, and, following the advice given to the young Irishman on his first visit to Donegal Fair, shall "hit the head which sticks up the furthest."

Adolescence is the period which separates boyhood and girlhood on the one hand from manhood and womanhood on the other. Nobody seems able to say what the upper and lower limits of this period really are. Not only does it vary in different races, but also in different individuals within the race. In general, we may say that races inhabiting warm climates mature earlier than those living in colder regions. For races belonging to the temperate zone the following table shows the range of adolescence:—

Transition period	12+1 to 14+1	} One year earlier for girls.
Early adolescence	14+1 to 18+?	
Late adolescence	18+? to 25+?	

As far as the education of the adolescent is concerned, we may limit our discussion to the first two of the periods mentioned above. The transition period is included since it exhibits many of the characteristics of adolescence; late adolescence is excluded because it is beyond the usual range of school education. It will thus be evident that the problems of adolescent and of secondary education are one and the same.

The kind of education we give to children at different ages depends upon the stage of development they have reached. What the stage is can only be discovered by studying the characteristics they exhibit. I shall therefore spend a little time upon a review of the chief physical, mental and moral traits of adolescents before passing on to a discussion of the details of an education which is suited to them.

A study of a chart giving heights and weights of children in successive years reveals the interesting fact that during early adolescence girls are both heavier and taller than boys of a corresponding age. The reason for this is that the prepubertal acceleration of growth takes place from one to two years earlier in girls than boys. Two diametrically opposed conclusions have been arrived at from this single premise. The first is that since physical growth is closely paralleled by mental growth, girls should be given more difficult mental tasks than boys between the ages of eleven and fourteen. The second view is that there is only a given amount of energy in a body at a given time and consequently, if it is used up in physical growth, it is not available for mental labour; adolescent girls ought, therefore, to be given only the minimum amount of brain work. The present state of knowledge on the question prevents us from saying which is the more correct view. Common observation fails to detect any serious differences in mental power between boys and girls of any age. The objectors to the co-education of the sexes must obtain arguments from other quarters to support their contentions.

Are the preceding arguments valid when applied, not to opposite sexes of the same race, but to the same sex of different races? Are Jewish boys, for example, cleverer than British boys between the ages of eleven and seventeen because of their greater physiological maturity or because of inherent racial superiority? It is a difficult problem to solve. Yet in more than one English secondary school it has been seriously proposed to handicap Jewish competitors for entrance examination scholarships because their precocious development seemed to give them an unfair advantage over other candidates. They certainly obtain more scholarships in proportion to their numbers than other races. In the opinion of the writer maturity certainly counts, but there is also an innate racial superiority which must be taken into consideration.

The growth in height and weight means the addition of new substance to the muscular and bony tissues. The muscles increase in length and girth and the bones to which they are attached must be strengthened to support them adequately. The bones of the leg grow more in the male, so that the female has a proportionately longer body. The growth of the muscles brings increase of power—greater weights can be lifted and greater pressures exerted. Boys increase more rapidly than girls in this respect, although both double their gripping power between the ages of eleven and sixteen. While the efficiency of fundamental movements increases, the nicer discriminative movements lose their precision to a certain extent. For instance, the ability to discriminate between weights declines at fifteen to sixteen, then gradually increases again. Similarly, Bryan found that the ability to place a needle in a small socket and to perform other delicate movements is decreased. These facts support the view that periods of growth alternate with periods of adjustment, not merely for the body as a whole, but also for the several organs, and thus suggest that the earlier years of adolescence are important mainly for increase in size and for fundamental control; accessory precision may develop later.

The vigorous growth of bone and muscle entails an increased food supply, hence the digestive system becomes more efficient. The absorptive surface of the alimentary canal increases in area, though not in proportion to the increased surface of the body. The jaw increases both in length and strength; this may not be merely to obtain food more easily, but may have been related in the past to the fighting instinct, since there is a great development of teeth in the anthropoid apes just before maturity.

The more rapid metabolism throws a greater strain upon the excretory system, consequently these organs tend to grow larger and stronger. There is increased secretion of the sebaceous and sweat glands. The liver and pancreas also show an increase in size and in the amounts of their secretions.

The chest grows larger and the vital capacity of the lungs increases. The greatest increase in girth is found in girls between twelve and fourteen, in boys between fourteen and fifteen, and growth is rapid to the age of eighteen. From thirteen to sixteen the natural size of the chest is the same in boys and girls, but boys have greater expansive powers. The method of

breathing often changes in girls from abdominal to costal, but part of the change is probably artificially produced by tight clothing and could be avoided. The process of respiration is slightly different in boys and girls—less carbon-dioxide is exhaled by girls. The heart increases in size and strength. There is a greater strain put upon the circulatory system than upon the other organs, for it has to carry the augmented food supply to all parts of the body and to keep the sexual organs and the brain especially well supplied. Compared with the development of the heart, there is but little increase in the size of the blood-vessels. The tension of the arteries and the blood pressure are thus increased, and these probably account for much of the excitement and exhilaration felt during adolescence.

In the mental life adolescence is marked by changes principally in two directions: (1) a change in the *feeling-life*, and (2) a change in the *thinking-life*. The first of these is probably the more pronounced since it is closely associated with the powerful instinct of sex. It exhibits itself under various aspects, and some of these I shall now describe. There is first of all a *dissatisfaction with past achievements*. Things, interests, toys, occupations which sufficed aforetime, are now discarded as being childish or only fit for babies. A positive aspect of the same process is the *awakening of a new curiosity*. The child becomes interested in the outer world and wants to hear of other people and other lands. He wishes to get behind the things he sees and handles. He now becomes eager to read everything he can lay his hands on, and so great is this desire that dry, ponderous tomes will be religiously read if no others are available. This curiosity often shows itself in truancy and in running away to sea, and generally in breaking the irksome bounds of social control. The third aspect of the changed feeling-life is seen in the adolescent's *desire to express himself*, to make himself felt, to add his contribution and to "take his place in the sun." Finally we have to notice a change and development in that state of feeling we call love. Slaughter, describing this change, says, "The boy suddenly begins to take an interest in his own appearance; for the first time in his life he voluntarily attends to his hair and teeth, his boots and linen; he becomes punctilious in regard to his clothing, and the choice of neck-ties is an important event. When in the company of other boys and in the presence of girls, he seeks occasions for showing

his courage and strength, he willingly attacks the largest boy and incurs risk to limb in feats of skill and prowess. In the presence of the loved one he is awkward and even paralyzed in expression; he never ventures to declare himself, but makes use of only the vaguest hints, and often contents himself with seeing her from afar. Development in the girl is on lines similar to those observable during the mating season; she preserves an attitude of seeming indifference, and is most careful not to give the attention which the boy is struggling to attract; at the same time she is seeing and understanding everything."

The main changes in the *thinking-life* are as follows:—First there is a questioning attitude which arises into prominence at this time. The adolescent begins to compare ideals and to ask why one man is better than another. He passes from mere empirical observation to an ideational and abstract world. The mental attitude which indicates perplexity and asks "why?" leads on to an attitude which seeks a solution, i.e., to *reasoning*. The adolescent begins anew to classify, compare, accept and reject. Of course, in childhood he has reasoned, but he now turns the power to vaster subjects; he attempts at one and the same time to set the world and his own mental house in order. Through his new-found power he discovers flaws in the thought of the past and is often relentless in his rejection of what he feels to be untrue.

Closely associated with the emotional-life of the adolescent is the change in the moral and religious outlook. The church marks the inception of adolescence with the sacrament of confirmation, while even savages, such as the aborigines of Australia, initiate their budding adolescents into the mysteries and religious rites of the tribe.

The adolescent begins to understand virtues in their deeper meaning. Courage, for example, is seen to be a wider thing than the daring evinced by the highwayman. The virtues of humility and sympathy, once ignored and despised as weak, are now revered as pregnant with meaning. He also may exhibit curious and rapid alterations in his religious feelings and experiences. An unreality may appear about the dogmas he daily repeats. Or again, the dominant aspect of his behaviour may be a revolt against existing conditions. This may take the form of somewhat violent reactions. Wearied by what he feels is unworthy or hypocritical, he rushes into diatribes against existing forms of

government or ecclesiastical usages. In all these things he requires patient consideration, for they are usually but passing phases. If we ignore the violent eccentricities and emphasize the normal features the result will be gratifying to all who have the education of the adolescent at heart.

What kind of curriculum is suited to this peculiar creature we call an adolescent, and when shall the course begin? We shall seek for an answer to these questions by first laying down certain principles in the selection of studies and then evaluating the solutions proffered by contemporary educational practice in various parts of the world.

There are far more subjects for study than any one person can possibly get to know properly. In addition, there are varieties of capacities among adolescent pupils and varieties of careers to follow when schooling is completed. Shall the pupil, the parent, the teacher, or the State choose the course of study? From many points of view an expert in the choice of curricula would be an invaluable addition to the staff of a secondary school. But this pre-supposes a very wide offering of studies from which to choose. The choice by the teacher, the pupil, or the parent will scarcely be a wise one either because of incompetency or because of a lack of knowledge of the conditioning factors. The choice by the State always errs on the side of uniformity, and the worst kind of election, namely, election at the beginning and in a lump is an inevitable consequence. There should, it seems to me, be a broad foundation of studies which is fairly uniform for all. On this a variety of courses can be built which will satisfy the varying capacities of the pupils on the one hand, and their varying future careers and occupations on the other. But the final choice of a subject in which to specialize should be deferred as late as possible, since no teacher or pupil knows what hidden talents even a year will bring forth.

Turning now to a very brief consideration of some of the secondary school programmes of the civilized world, we find that Germany has three main kinds of curricula taught in three separate types of schools. The *Gymnasium* is predominantly a classical school. Sixty-eight hours of its course are devoted to Latin and thirty-six to Greek. The *Real-gymnasium* teaches Latin, French, and English, but no Greek. A fair amount of Mathematics is taught in this type of school. The *Ober-realschule* substitutes

French and English for the Latin and Greek of the *Gymnasium* and specializes in Natural Sciences and Mathematics. These courses are coherent, consistent and intelligible. The fact that foreign language study is begun in each of the schools at nine years of age is an added merit. But the German plan has a fatal drawback inasmuch as it forces a crucial choice of school, and therefore of career, upon the child of nine years of age.

Both the English and the French systems keep various types of courses in operation in a single school. A fairly free choice of courses as the pupil specializes more and more is also a distinctive feature of both systems. In the French *Lycées* all pupils spend two years in a preparatory division and two years in an elementary division in which the curriculum is uniform for all. The secondary course proper begins at eleven years of age, and is divided into two cycles. In the first cycle, which runs for four years, there are two choices of curricula—Divisions A and B. In “A” Languages, ancient and modern, are emphasized; in “B” the emphasis is upon Moderns and Mathematics. During the first two years of the second cycle four courses are open to the pupil. These are respectively, the Latin-Greek, the Latin-Modern Languages, the Latin-Science, and the Science-Modern Languages courses. The last year of the second cycle, when the pupil is about eighteen years of age, is divided into two forms—Mathematics and Philosophy. Minor differences, permitting of two choices of school programme, are made in each of the two forms.

In England no such centralization of authority as exists in France and Germany is to be found. The Board of Education has in reality little control over the curricula of Secondary Schools within its jurisdiction. It is true that the Board insists on certain subjects being taught and on the time-table as a whole being satisfactory to the visiting inspector, but the head master, with the assistance of his staff, is responsible for the course of study within his particular school. So, theoretically, there are as many curricula as there are schools. In actual practice the schemes, at least so far as the larger institutions are concerned, conform to a type which gives a solid grounding in many subjects and defers the choice of the specialist course as late as possible. A general course, therefore, is given from ten to fourteen; the curricula of the last four years are arranged so as to permit of specialization

along one of the following lines:—Classics, Mathematics and Science, Modern Languages, and History.

The continent of North America, more by historical accident than by deliberate design, introduced the idea of a four-year High School into educational organization. Expert contemporary opinion, influenced no doubt by recent psychological investigations, is beginning to cast doubts upon the wisdom of such a procedure. The opponents of the four-year system declare that fourteen is too old to begin the study of foreign languages with advantage to the pupil. Further, the change from an Elementary to a Secondary School is profound in its effects. It should be made at a time when there is a natural break in the life of the pupil, namely, at eleven or twelve years of age. Many cities in the United States have adopted the six-year High School plan. It is usually divided into two periods each of three years, the first running from twelve to fifteen, the second from fifteen to eighteen.

It would be presumptuous of me to offer a criticism of our Ontario school system, since I probably know it far less intimately than many of my audience. May I then dismiss the topic by suggesting the following question for your consideration: "Is a Secondary School programme which is practically uniform for all scholars within the Province the best that can be devised in view of the diverse needs of a new and rapidly-developing country?"

A few last thoughts on the more intimate aspects of the adolescent's education. First and foremost the proper education for the adolescent is that which discourages morbid and abnormal conditions. The aim of the secondary teacher should ever be to find occupations which will healthily employ the adolescent mind and body. The pupil should also be given a wise use of freedom. This, at first glance, seems incompatible with the dictum, "keep him busy," but a boy free to use his time need not necessarily spend it in loafing. Freedom also permits him to define his vague impulses after social values. The adolescent hungers for companionship; the "gang" or "clan" spirit is strong within him, hence the wise teacher encourages corporate games, school societies and out-of-school activities of all descriptions.

Care for the health of the scholars in mind and body is of supreme importance at this critical period. In the past this has often been forgotten and minds have been ruined through premature and excessive study. The period is one when, amid con-

ditions of vigorous growth, the body is very receptive to disease and harm. Tuberculosis, nervous disorders, hysteria, formation of bad habits, and tendencies to insanity arise at this period. The teacher must do everything to protect and strengthen the adolescent so that he may meet and overcome these dangers. Close attention must be paid to see that the scholars obtain a sufficient quantity of sleep on suitable bedding, live in fresh air, bathe frequently and wear loose, hygienic clothing. Cold bathing should be encouraged since the "Devil in us hates cold water." Amid all these cares, the need for wise and sympathetic instruction in sexual matters by some pure man for boys, and some motherly woman for girls (preferably the parents, or, failing these, the school doctor), should never be forgotten.

SOME PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN ONTARIO.

BY R. A. GRAY, B.A.

The address of the President of the College and High School Department has sometimes been employed as a vehicle for hostile criticism of the Education Department and its methods, especially those of inspection. More generally it has been used, as in most other societies, in taking a comprehensive view of the confronting situation, and in seeking to offer some suggestions which may prove of service.

The latter method I shall endeavour to pursue, trying to point out some problems in secondary education, so far as they apply to our own Province, and offering one or two suggestions.

Your Committee on the Secondary School programme will report later. Though it is scarcely possible to avoid entirely the ground their report will cover, I shall do so as far as possible.

The first and most striking feature of present-day secondary education is the revolt from the overloading of the curriculum. Not only in Canada are there murmurs deep and prolonged, but in Germany and in the United States this subject is to the fore.

The Education Department in its latest regulations made some small effort to give relief, but much still remains to be done in that regard. The University of Toronto should also afford relief by modifying the conditions of the competition for the Edward Blake scholarships. In view of the establishment of the Carter scholarships, which will increase the competition among schools in the senior classes, the moderate suggestion of your Committee to limit the number of subjects for proficiency should commend itself to the authorities, as well as to this Department.

The earlier study of foreign languages is also a much discussed question.

In the United States primary education occupies eight grades, from age 6 to age 14; then secondary education four grades, from age 14 to 18. Vocational education generally begins at 14, about the same time that entrance is made into the High Schools; but this age is considered too high for both vocational and High

School studies, and an unnecessary length of time is spent in elementary subjects. In Ontario our system is almost the same as in the United States. Between the ages of 12 and 14 no new subject is begun, and a distaste for school arises because of the uninteresting repetition of familiar subjects, which contributes, as much as unrest or lack of means, to the depletion of classes at these ages and the relatively low attendance in the Secondary Schools. The remedy proposed in Circular No. 38 issued by the Bureau of Education at Washington is to reduce elementary education from 8 to 6 years, and consequently to begin vocational and secondary education two years earlier. It is claimed that, if this change occurred, the efficiency of the race would be increased by at least a year of life. The study of foreign languages could be begun earlier, at an age when facility in learning language is greater. Subjects or parts of subjects, which are not of vital interest, could be omitted. A larger percentage of the community would receive a higher grade of education, and the Universities would have their graduating age reduced.

An abrupt change whereby pupils would enter the High Schools two years earlier than at present would be revolutionary. Neither the High Schools nor the Public Schools in this country are in a position to meet so radical an innovation in organization. But might not some adaptation of present conditions produce a similar result with the existing machinery? Why not have *one* foreign language taught during the last year or two of their Public School course to pupils who expect to enter a High School? Let the foreign language be either French or German, taught by the Modern Language master of the adjoining High School or Continuation School, or by some other equally competent instructor; and let the object be the spoken tongue, not the grammar or translation. A lesson daily of half an hour would not interfere with the efficiency of the Public Schools. Those taking the foreign language would generally be the brightest in the class; the remainder of the class or classes could be given special drill by the regular teacher in some subject in which they might be deficient, which is done now only at the expense of the brighter pupils. It is true that this would impose an additional burden on the High Schools, but one of the defects of High Schools is a lack of teaching power. All schools should have more teachers than there are classes, and

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the partial employment of a teacher in Public School work could easily give complete occupation for an extra teacher. It might even occur that a teacher in the Public School might be competent to do such work though if it were done by an outsider there would be security that undue attention would not be given to the foreign language.

With High Schools and Continuation Schools scattered widely throughout the Province the scheme would be far-reaching. Here and there would be districts and schools, especially rural schools, where no foreign language could be efficiently taught, but with increased teaching power in the High Schools special attention could be given to those entering a High School with no previous language training, until they could overtake the others.

According to the daily press a proposal made by the University professors to allow Latin, Greek, French and German to be taught in the Public Schools, is said to have been submitted by the Education Department to certain Public and High School teachers and condemned on account of the present overloaded curriculum in the Public Schools, and fear of disorganization in the High Schools. The scheme appears to have been too ambitious. While there are objections to the introduction of all four languages, there should be no very strong reason why one foreign language, and that a modern language, should not be begun in the Public Schools, provided it is made a vital subject and not a grammar grind.

Those who travel in Europe cannot but be struck by the number of people who speak English who have, in the majority of cases, never been in an English-speaking country, but who have studied the subject at school in a living way. Nor is it, in many cases, because they have begun early in life. Adults in night classes learn to speak a foreign language in a short time, and they can also read it understandingly. It has been for long a matter of surprise that we fail to produce such results in Canada. Various reasons are assigned for our lack of success: insufficient time in the High Schools; too late a beginning in life; wrong methods of teaching whereby the same plan is used as with Latin and Greek; teachers not qualified to teach the living language because of the fact that stress is being laid, in the University courses, on the early forms of the languages and the old literature at the expense of the modern language or literature; the translation ideal instead of the spoken language; little opportunity of practising

a foreign language on the streets or elsewhere. Several or all of these reasons may be the cause of our comparative failure, but it is to be hoped that some solution may be found. In justice to teachers of modern languages in our High Schools it should be acknowledged that in no other department have the teachers exhibited a greater desire to excel. To perfect their knowledge they frequently make trips during the holidays to France or Germany, but what can be accomplished in six weeks or two months? Ontario should welcome for the benefit of modern language study a system of exchange of teachers with France and Germany; and the Government and Boards of Education should assist from time to time, those who would avail themselves of opportunities of residence abroad.

Another question that should be considered in formulating a curriculum is that of sex. In only one particular is any differentiation in studies provided for; in Household Science and in Manual training. No girl takes Manual Training, no boy Household Science; yet all take the same courses in Mathematics, Science, Languages and Literature. Women are themselves partly responsible for this state of affairs. In their struggle for equal recognition they have insisted on equality in intellectual pursuits, but is it wise? It is a very common notion that man is strong is reasoning, while woman relies on intuition rather than on the slower processes of ratiocination. Reason is the faculty employed where causation is concerned but is not the only faculty by which truth is reached. The moral and spiritual regions are beyond causation. If Bergson's philosophy is correct, and reasoning and intuition are different expressions or functions of life, why not recognize these differences in our schools? Why plan and conduct our schools as if reason were the only faculty of man? Anyone who has observed the patient labour spent by the average girl on Algebra, Geometry and Physics, and the comparative ease and pleasure received from the study of Literature, Composition and History, and has observed the reverse in the case of the boys, should come to the conclusion that educational standards should not be alike for boys and girls.

Why not recognize the difference by setting easier papers in Mathematics and Science for girls on the same curriculum but exacting a higher standard in English, History, and Foreign Languages?

It is quite true that some girls excel in Mathematics and Science. Many of those who have reached the very highest rank in these subjects in the universities have been girls, as we all know, and those who wished should be allowed to take the severer course in Mathematics and Science; but not all girls should be compelled to reach the same standard as boys in these subjects.

Again, might not the Science taught girls be of a different character? Why should the Chemistry, for example, not have a more direct bearing on foods? It is obvious that if varying courses be introduced, additional teaching power will be necessary, but should a little increase in expenditure weigh against the general good of the community?

Another question of vital importance to the High Schools at the present time is the abolition of the Entrance Examination and the substitution therefor of a certificate from the Public School teacher of a pupil's ability to do High School work. Ottawa was the first to adopt this plan, and this year Toronto is following for the first time. Without doubt many other centres will make the change in the near future.

The Entrance Examination should not hastily be abandoned without proper consideration being given to both sides. Many who are not certain of the effect of no examination and being well aware from long experience of some weaknesses in the examination system will advocate a trial of the no-examination plan. It may be worth while pointing out one or two advantages of the examination.

While there is no reason to suppose that Public School classes will be less efficiently taught, or less honest work done, without than with the Entrance Examination, yet the abolition of the examination will mean the withdrawal of a standard of attainment, and it may be expected that as a consequence, pupils of very unequal attainment and capacity will be admitted to the junior classes of the High Schools.

President Lowell of Harvard University in an article in *Education*, of December, 1913, on "Measurements of Efficiency in College," says: "The instructor who conducts his own examinations in his own course, does his own teaching and does his own examining, has no standard outside of himself by which he can compare himself. He is in the position of the Biblical persons

who, comparing themselves among themselves, and measuring themselves, by themselves, are not wise." And again: "The simplest method of improving the measure of efficiency is the aid of other examiners besides the instructor himself."

If a teacher, being consistent, abandons all examinations and trusts to a general impression of the ability and attainments of his class, he is almost sure to be misled. Some pupils who really have no grasp of a subject answer very well in class, while silent pupils in many cases far excel them in mental power and efficiency. Nor is an incorrect judgment altogether due to the pupil. Dr. Herman Weimer of Germany in his little book, "The Way to the Heart of a Pupil" (which, by the way, should be in the hands of every teacher), says: "An English teacher who recently visited a number of our schools in order to gain personal knowledge of system, says that he was everywhere astonished at the excellent oral answers of the pupils. His surprise was still greater when these pupils had given evidence of the result of their training, by the safe test of repeating the programme of the day before, through a written examination. These papers swarmed with blunders. After careful observation, the Englishman found that the excellence of the oral recitation was due to the clever questioning by the teacher, and that the correct answers were 'suggested,' as he expressed it."

Many of us have had similar experiences, and the exclamation, "But I understood perfectly when you taught the lesson yesterday," should bid us pause and reflect on the futility of some of what we may consider our best and most skilfully-taught lessons.

Nor is the remedy for a complete absence of examinations, one conducted by the teacher himself. He naturally examines on those parts of a subject which in his opinion are important and which his pupils have learned to view as he does. But when an outsider sets the papers, if the questions are fair and good, the candidate must depend on assimilated knowledge only. This is the value of the Provincial Examination, and High School Principals should be very sure of the advantages of abandoning the examination before handing over to the Public School teachers full control in determining who are, or are not, fit to do High School work.

The main objection to the Entrance Examination is that it has been given too much weight. The teacher's opinion should be

given far more consideration than at present. An examination cannot test everything; it cannot test character or moral qualities which count largely both in school life and in world affairs, but it does test other qualities, and we should "render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's."

Throughout the world examinations seem to be growing in favour; for many commercial and industrial organizations, and for the Civil Service, they are considered the best test of a candidate's fitness. If the abolition of the Entrance Examination will result in pupils being admitted to our High Schools at an earlier age, it may be a decided advantage, especially in language study; but if not we may expect very unequally graded junior classes in our High Schools, as a result of the powerful influences that will be brought to bear on the Public School principals to promote pupils.

Another question which has caused some newspaper discussion during the past year is the extent to which Ethics can be taught in schools. Those who claim that this can be accomplished only through the Bible were pleased to learn that the Superintendent of Education had given the subject some consideration and had proposed making Bible Knowledge a bonus subject on the High School Entrance Examination.

Wherever the Entrance Examination is abolished, this solution would fall to the ground, and a new solution must be sought. According to the present regulations, schools are permitted to give some attention to the subject, though it is purely voluntary, and no special effort is made by the authorities to have instruction given in a systematic manner.

The time allotted to me is exhausted, but before closing permit me to offer a suggestion to the University authorities. Congested classes, especially in the first year, and insufficient income, are the chief administrative problems of the University of Toronto to-day. The President's solution for the former, though unacceptable to the other universities, was to raise the standard of Matriculation to that of the Honour Junior Matriculation. Why not make the curriculum of the First Year pass work identical with that of the Honour Junior Matriculation and admit students directly from the High Schools to the Second Year general course

or to such other Second Year courses, if there are any, that demand no honour First Year subjects?

There is no reason why the High Schools could not do a larger part of the First Year work if they were allowed to do so. The High School Fifth Form would be fuller, but no additional expense would be incurred.

This solution would relieve the University and would be acceptable to the High Schools.

Many other matters are before the public, such as Industrial Education, but it is out of the question in a few brief minutes to discuss such problems.

MODERN LANGUAGE DEPARTMENT.

DIE LEHRER AN DEN PREUSSISCHEN SCHULEN.

VON OBERLEHRER DR. GEORG KARTZKE, BERLIN, GERMANY,
Lecturer in University College, Toronto.

Meine Damen und Herren,

Da ich hier die Ehre habe, vor einer Vereinigung der Lehrer der Provinz Ontario zu sprechen, so scheint es mir angemessen, Ihnen einiges von den preussischen Kollegen beiderlei Geschlechts zu erzählen. Dabei wird es mein Bestreben sein, Sie möglichst mit Tabellen und Statistiken zu verschonen, Ihnen anstatt dessen eine Vorstellung von den Hauptunterschieden zu geben, wie sie sich mir 1910-11 in den Vereinigten Staaten und nunmehr hier in Canada gezeigt haben.

Die Zusammensetzung dieser hochansehnlichen Versammlung kann uns hineinführen in den Hauptunterschied des neuen vom alten Lande: hier sehe ich Damen und Herren, vom Kindergarten bis zur Universität erstreckt sich Ihre Lehrtätigkeit, ein wahrlich schönes Bild des Gemeinsamkeitsgefühls der Lehrer im weitesten Sinne des Wortes. Bei uns können Sie wohl Versammlungen von Elementarschullehrern, von Oberlehrern, von Universitätsprofessoren finden; doch eine solche fruchtbare Wechselwirkung ist bei uns leider unbekannt.

Die Erklärung für die scharfe Sonderung liegt in der sozialen Struktur der alten Welt: es gibt fest ausgebildete Klassen und Stände, die zum Teil historisch sind. Doch wären derartige Schranken von dem hemokratischen Winde unsrer Zeit hinweggefeht worden, wenn nicht die Entwicklung der modernen Periode diese Schranken nicht nur gerechtfertigt, sondern sogar unübersteigbarer gemacht hätte. Die Anforderung der höchsten Leistung hat in einem nun schon beinahe zu stark bevölkerten Lande (66 Millionen auf 2-3 der Provinz Ontario), das sich rings gegen mächtige Konkurrenten zu behaupten hat, eine Ausspannung der Kräfte zur Folge, die nur möglich ist nach dem Princip der Arbeitsteilung und die zu einer Spezialisierung auf allen Gebieten

geführt hat. Ob Kellner, ob Lehrer, ob Briefträger, ob Maurer, ob Professor, jeder ist durch eine lange Lehrzeit gegangen; die Menge der Menschen, das gegen hier umgekehrte Verhältniß von Angebot und Nachfrage erlaubt es, die Anforderungen immer höher zu schrauben, oft weit über den Zusammenhang mit dem Beruf hinausgehend, nur eine Folge des geringen Ellbogenraumes. So gehört bei uns der Uebergang von einem Beruf zum andern beinahe zur Unmöglichkeit; im Gegensatz zu dem freien Umherschweifen marschieren wir geschlossen; es gibt kein Entrinnen und wie Gottfried Kellers grüner Heinrich, in Reih und Glied stehend, die geliebte Judith seinen Augen entweichen sieht, so muss mancher dem in seiner Jugend enträumten Beruf sehnsuchtsvolle Blicke nachwerfen; während ihn die Verhältnisse zwingen, wenn vielleicht nicht nach dem entgegengesetzten Ziel, so doch nach einem andern zu marschieren.

Kein Wunder, dass die Schule, als Spiegelbild eine entsprechende Trennung aufweist: Elementar oder Volks oder Gemeindeschulen verfolgen von vornherein einen andern Zweck als die höheren Schulen, jene sind auf das praktische Leben gerichtet, diese bereiten auf die Universität oder Hochschule vor; jene sind frei, diese kosten Schulgeld, das allerdings sehr mässig ist (\$20 pro Jahr für Realschulen). Diese horizontale Trennung im Gegensatz zur vertikalen hier ist wie bei den Ständen historisch, doch genau wie dort durch die moderne Spezialisierung bedingt. Nicht Kastenschulen sind es, sondern Spezialschulen. Auch auf der Schule kann man nicht zweien Herren dienen: sonst tut man wie hier in diesem Lande beiden Theilen Unrecht. Man gibt denen, die frühzeitig ins Leben treten eine unvollkommene, abgebrochene Erziehung, und man hält die kleine Zahl der zur Universität strebenden Schüler mit Rücksicht auf die Masse zurück, beraubt sie z. B. durch zu späten Beginn der Fremdsprachen für immer einer guten Beherrschung dieses unentbehrlichen Bildungsmittels.

Für beide Theile ist daher unzweifelhaft die Trennung das beste, zwei Gesetze gewährleisten, dass es nicht eine Schule der Armen und der Reichen wird.

Die begabten und fleissigen Schüler der Volksschulen können auf Empfehlung ihrer Lehrer eine Freistelle auf den höheren Schulen erhalten; 15% der Plätze dort stehen ihnen offen, so dass reichlich für den Aufstieg der Begabten gesorgt ist. Ebenso werden unbegabte, oder träge Schüler aus den höheren Schulen

ausgeschieden. Ein Schüler darf einen Jahreskurs nur einmal wiederholen; erreicht er dann sein Ziel nicht, so muss er die höhere Schule verlassen, und bei schulpflichtigem Alter zur Gemeindeschule gehen.

Es ist ein vollkommener Irrtum zu glauben, dass der Sohn eines Arbeiters oder eines Unterbeamten in der Stellung seines Vaters bleiben muss; bis in hohe Ämter können wir die Söhne der ärmsten Klasse aufsteigen sehen. Von meinem Kollegen kann ich ohne Mühe eine grosse Reihe aufzählen, deren Väter Arbeiter, Schuldiener, Briefträger u. a. m. gewesen sind.

Da Privatschulen keine "Berechtigungen" verleihen und deshalb so gut wie gar keine Rolle spielen, findet durch diese Ausschlussung eine gütige Auslese statt.

Eine logische Folge dieser gesonderten Schulen, der praktischen und der Gelehrtenschule, ist die ebenso strenge Sonderung der Lehrervorbildung. Jene Lehrer werden praktisch, diese wissenschaftlich ausgebildet.

Da an unsern Volksschulen nur 18% Lehrerinnen sind, so ist die Ausbildung vor allem auf die Lehrer zugeschnitten. Diese gestaltet sich so, dass der Schüler nach Abschluss der Gemeindeschule drei Jahre eine "Präparandenschule," drei weitere Jahre ein "Seminar" besucht und nach bestandnem Examen, also durchschnittlich mit 20 Jahren, zu unterrichten beginnt. Bewährt sich der junge Lehrer, so kann er nach 5 Jahren zu einem zweiten Examen zugelassen werden und damit die entgeltliche Anstellungsfähigkeit erwerben.

Die Präparandenanstalt und die Seminare werden vom Staat oder von den Städten erhalten. Jene sind durchgängig Internate, diese sind es zum grossen Teil. Aus erzieherischen Gründen hat man diese Anstalten fern von dem zerstreuen Einfluss der Grossstadt in kleine Orte gelegt, und so ist zu hoffen, dass der künftige Erzieher sich erst ein selbständiges Urteil aus eigener Anschauung über Land und Stadt und Grossstadt bilden, und nicht bedingungslos vor der Asphaltkultur kapitulieren wird.

Die Präparandenschule erweitert die auf der Volksschule gelehrtten Kenntnisse; sie umfasst alle Elementarfächer, eine fremde Sprache und Musik. Hervorzuheben ist der intensive Betrieb in der Religion, gegen den man Widerspruch erhoben hat.

Für das Seminar ist charakteristisch die organische Verbindung von theoretischer und praktischer Pädagogik. Alle Zöglinge

haben dauernd Gelegenheit, an der Uebungsschule sich praktisch zu betätigen. Die dadurch erreichte Geschicklichkeit unseer Lehrer im Unterricht ist stets von allen Kritikern anerkannt worden.

Das Gehalt ist für alle Lehrer, Stadt und Land, nach der neuen Ordnung ziemlich dasselbe. Der Unterschied besteht nur in der Ortszulage und in der Mietsentschädigung.

Lehrer 1400 in 31 Jahren zu 3300 + Ortszulage 900 +
Mietsentschädigung.

Lehrerin 1200 in 31 Jahren zu 2450 + Ortszulage 600 +
Mietsentschädigung.

Um eine Mark richtig zu werten, müssen Sie für notwendige Dinge $1\$ = 2 \text{ M.}$, für Luxus $1\$ = 1 \text{ M.}$ setzen. Wenn Sie ferner bedenken, dass der Lehrer wie alle Beamten lebenslänglich angestellt ist nach 10 Jahren pensionsberechtigt ist zu $\frac{1}{3}$ seines Gehaltes, dass diese Pension bis zu $\frac{3}{4}$ des Gehaltes steigt und dass auch die Witwen lebenslänglich und Waisen bis zum 18 Jahr eine Rente erhalten, so ist das im Verhältnis zu Amerika ausgezeichnet.

Die meisten Lehrer bleiben in ihrem Stand bis an ihr Lebensende. Es steht ihnen nur offen, Rektor einer Schule zu werden oder an eine Präparandenschule oder ein Seminar überzugehen oder die Stelle eines Kreisschulinspektors zu übernehmen. Im Gegensatz zu der fortwährenden Unrast hier, wo der Lehrerberuf ein Durchgangsstadium zu etwas "Besserem" (!) ist (zu höherem Einkommen), ist er bei uns das Endziel.

Ganz und gar getrennt von diesem Lehrerstand ist der Stand der akademischen Oberlehrer. Der zukünftige Oberlehrer geht nach seinem Abgang von der höheren Schule zur Universität und studiert seine erwählten Fächer wissenschaftlich, ohne an die Schule zu denken. Die einzige Rücksicht ist die, dass er seine Studienfächer in einer bestimmten Kombination wählt, etwa neuere Sprachen und Deutsch, Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften. Etwa ein Drittel erwerben den Doktorgrad, der praktisch gar keine Bedeutung für den zukünftigen Oberlehrer hat, um so erfreulicher, dass viele mehr als ein Jahr daran wenden, Kosten für Studienreisen nicht scheuen. Wer einmal selbst Hand angelegt hat, wird mehr Ehrfurcht vor der Forschung haben, und es wird sein Wunsch sein, mit der verjüngenden Forschung in Fühlung

zu bleiben und nicht bloß ein Durchgangrohr für aufgenommene Kenntnisse zu werden. Nur der, der sein Fach auch wissenschaftlich beherrscht, sollte die höhere Schule betreten; der Routinier sollte ihr fernbleiben, denn der glaubt alles zu wissen und wird zu jenem unerträglichen Besserwisser, während der andere sich im fortdauernden Lernen Jugend und Bescheidenheit erhält.

So nimmt denn das Staatsexamen mit Recht gar keine Rücksicht auf die Schule, es sei denn, dass man die Prüfung in der theoretischen Pädagogik sehr wichtig nimmt.

Nach bestandnem Examen, wird der "Kandidat des höheren Lehramts" einer höheren Schule auf 1 Jahr zur praktischen Ausbildung überwiesen. Während dieses Seminar-jahres erhält er keine Bezahlung. Gewöhnlich sind 6 bis 8 an einer Schule vereinigt, die nun unter Führung des Direktors und der Oberlehrer ihre praktischen Versuche beginnen. Anfänglich hören sie nur zu, geben ab und zu eine Stunde, bis sie am Schluss des—Jahres alle selbständig unterrichten. Mit dieser praktischen Ausbildung geht eine theoretische Unterweisung Hand in Hand, die in einer zweistündigen Sitzung in jeder Woche gegeben wird. Dort werden Unterrichtsstunden, methodische Fragen u. a. m. besprochen, so zwar, daß die Kandidaten Vorträge halten, die dann zum Ausgangspunkt der Diskussion dienen. Von jeder Sitzung wird ein Protokoll angefertigt, das der Behörde eingereicht wird. Zum Schluss macht jeder eine grössere theoretisch praktische Arbeit. In dem Seminar des Kgl. Französischen Gymnasiums zu Berlin waren wir 6 Neuphilologen. In jeder Woche waren entweder zwei französische oder zwei englische Sitzungen, in denen nur der Gebrauch der fremden Sprache erlaubt war. In den französischen Sitzungen wurden allgemeine pädagogische Fragen, in den englischen die besonderen des neusprachlichen Unterrichts besprochen. Die Schlussarbeit wurde ebenfalls in der fremden Sprache abgefaßt; das Thema meiner Arbeit war z. B. *How to teach the use of the English tenses*. Der Direktor und das Kollegium beurteilen nun den jungen Mann; ist er gänzlich ungeeignet, so muß er den Dienst verlassen; ist es zweifelhaft mit ihm, so muss er das Seminarjahr wiederholen.

Diejenigen, die für fähig gehalten werden, werden zum Probejahr zugelassen. Während dieses Jahres unterrichten die Kandidaten selbständig, wiederum ohne Bezahlung zu erhalten. Da soll der künftige Lehrer beweisen, ob er nun wirklich seinen

Unterricht versteht. Zum Schluss giebt er einen ausführlichen Bericht über seine Erfahrungen im Unterricht, in der Disciplin u. s. w. Wie am Ende des ersten Jahres, muss er entweder ausscheiden oder das Jahr wiederholen oder er erhält das Zeugnis der Anstellungsfähigkeit. Nunmehr kann er zum Oberlehrer gewählt werden, sofern eine Stelle frei ist. Gewöhnlich folgt eine längere Wartezeit, während der er umsonst oder gegen geringes Gehalt (2100 M.) unterrichten muss.

Das Staatsexamen wird gewöhnlich mit 26 Jahren abgelegt. Seminar, Probejahr und ein Jahr in der Armee und Wartezeit dazu genommen, ergibt, dass die Ernennung zum Oberlehrer Anfang der dreissiger Jahre erfolgt.

Das Gehalt steigt in 21 Dienstjahren von 2700 bis 7200 M; dazu kommt das Wohnungsgeld von 1300 M in grossen Städten, in kleineren entsprechend geringer. Viele Städte geben noch eine Ostszulage, so dass alles in allem das Gehalt in Berlin und Vororten ist

4200 M bis 8500 M.

Die Pensionsverhältnisse sind ebinsowas bei den Volksschullehrern.

Wenn Sie die Umrechnung des relativen Wertes des Dollar acceptieren: (1\$ = 2 M, resp = 1 M), so folgt daraus, dass er im Gehalt besser daran ist als ein Universitätsprofessor hier.

Die meisten bleiben in ihrer Stellung; nach zwölfjähriger erfolgreicher Tätigkeit verleiht ihnen der König den Titel Professor.

Einige werden Direktoren, sonst stehen nur die wenigen Stellen in den Provinzialschulkollegien und im Ministerium offen.

Ein Übergang zur Universität ist im Gegensatz zur früheren Lage (Adolf Tobler, Wilmanns, Diels, Lasson) immer mehr zur Seltenheit geworden, obwohl die Ausbildung auf der Universität genau wie die des künftigen Universitätsprofessors ist. Der Grund liegt eben auch hier wie in der gesamten Standessonderung trotz zunehmender Demokratie in der Spezialisierung; der künftige Professor beginnt nach seinem Doktorexamen sich ganz seinem Fach zu widmen, der künftige Oberlehrer tritt in eine neue Welt und kann erst nach einiger Zeit zu seinen wissenschaftlichen Studien zurückkehren und dann kann er es, auch nur nebenbei tun. So ist es klar, dass bei gleicher Begabung der Privatdozent einen kaum einzuholenden Vorsprung hat. Die

Schwäche dieses Systems liegt allerdings daran, dass die Universitäts-carrière mehr und mehr nur reichen Leuten offen steht, die als unbezahlte Dozenten von ihrem Geld leben können.

Für den Oberlehrer ist daher ein allgemeines sein Beruf Ziel und Ende; die wissenschaftlich hervorragenden bleiben dem Stander erhalten, und es ist unser Stolz, wie viele hervorragende Leute wir in unsern Reihen haben. So entwickelte sich ein Standesbewusstsein und ein Standesstolz, und die Gesellschaft räumt ihnen eine sehr geachtete soziale Stellung ein. Die Unmöglichkeit, "Carrière" zu machen führt dazu, dass sie ihre ganze Kraft ihrem Beruf zuwenden, dass sie sich verinnerlichen und sich öfter auf den Sinn und Wert des Lebens besinnen, als die in äusserer und innere Unrast nach "höhern" Stellungen Jagenden tun.

So ist der Oberlehrer in seiner Stellung vollkommen gesichert, er geniesst all die Vorteile des Beamten. Er bezieht ein auskömmliches Gehalt; für Frau und Kinder sorgt der Staat im Fall seines Todes. Eine zwangsweise Pensionierung nach mechanischem Princip, die hier in Toronto in voller Kraft stehende Direktoren bei ungenügender Pension in bitterste Not bringt (April, 1914), ist ausgeschlossen. Ist er bei uns solange im Dienst gewesen, dann erhält er 3-4 seines Gehaltes als Pension und zwar ist das vom Staate garantiert.

Auf "chances" oder "opportunities" verzichtet er wie jeder Beamte. Mit philosophischem Geiste steht er oft resignierend abseits von der vollbesetzten Tafel des Lebens; dafür entgeht er den Stossen, Püffen und dem Ringen auf Tod und Leben, das in dem Gewühl der danach gierigen Menge stattfindet.

Hier in Canada habe ich die weise Voraussicht bewundert, die im Gegensatz zu den U. S. eine sorgfältige und specielle Ausbildung für die Lehrerberufe verlangt. Schön ist es, dass sich die einzelnen Stände in diesem jungen Lande dieses Gemeinschaftsgefühl bewahrt haben. Möge Ihnen dieses kostbare Gut trotz der unausbleiblich fortschreitenden Sonderung und Specialisierung erhalten bleiben!

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

ON THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF PRINCIPLES AND EXERCISES IN ALGEBRA, WITH APPLI- CATIONS TO EXAMINATION PAPERS.

BY R. N. MERRITT, B.A.

In these days when there is a growing tendency to look carefully into the efficiency of the secondary school, to examine to what extent the subject matter presented and the methods pursued are educative, when there is on all sides a clear call for a simplified programme, it seems to me well that we as Mathematical teachers should carefully consider what are the possible benefits of each of our subjects, to what degree these benefits are being realized, and if there is some degree of failure, why it is so, and what should be done to remedy the defect. In this paper I shall attempt to suggest a doubt as to the importance of the results at present secured in the study of Algebra, and shall offer one suggestion as to a means of improvement.

In my judgment the possible benefits may be classified and stated as follows: (1) The subject, in its earliest study, generalizes Arithmetical processes. (2) It furnishes instruction in the effectiveness of the condensed language of Algebra and affords practice in the scientific employment of the same. (3) It furnishes practice in the definite discovery of propositions and principles, the clear understanding of these principles, and the conscious application of the principles in the solution of problems. (4) The subject furnishes material for mental gymnastics in the mechanical solution of exercises by use of pattern methods without regard to the principles employed: that is, the benefit referred to arises from the mere mechanical manipulation alone, apart altogether from principle.

I shall consider each of these four points in turn. The benefit arising from the early treatment of the subject as a generalization and extension of the processes of Arithmetic is instructively set forth in the February issue of *The School* with excellent suggestions as to the method of teaching some of the early operations.

As is stated in the article, this method must afford some real pleasure to the student, and the clear comprehension of the processes themselves must broaden his intellectual horizon.

(2) The second benefit was stated to be—the instruction in the effectiveness of the condensed language of Algebra and the training afforded in its scientific employment. For example—to express in words the rule for finding the area of a triangle with given sides would require an awkward sentence, but how simply the formula is expressed in mathematical symbols:

$$\frac{1}{2} s (s-a) (s-b) (s-c).$$

In the subject of Physics it affords a neat and effective means of statement of such as Ohm's Law, the space traversed in a given time by falling bodies, etc. Analogous to this is the advantage its language and methods afford in the solution of arithmetical problems, a most prolific source of argument some years ago. The College Entrance Board of the United States appear to recognize the value for scientific purposes of this language, for in each of the five recent years for which I was able to obtain their examination papers there was a question involving some scientific formula expressed in Algebraic language. This in addition to a relatively large number of problems of arithmetic nature.

The third benefit enunciated was, "the subject furnishes practice in the definite discovery of proofs or principles and the conscious application of the same to the working out of exercises." It will be noted that here we place first the clear understanding of the principle, and not until the principles are understood are they applied in exercises. In this connection I shall discuss first the question of discovery and comprehension of the proposition. Frequently the subject lends itself to the laboratory method. The student under wise direction on the part of the teacher is made an investigator, is thrown on his own resources, and can be generally successful. This method is instructive in itself and in the results arrived at furnishes an interest too frequently lacking in the schoolroom, develops a proper self-reliance, and encourages the spirit of initiative.

I shall attempt to give a few illustrations:

(1) The rules in connection with the process of subtraction with signed quantities can be readily obtained by the student,

under the direction of the teacher, as was instructively indicated by Mr. Crawford in *The School* for December, 1912.

(2) The rule of indices in connection with simple multiplication can be easily discovered:

$$a^3 = a \times a \times a; a^2 = a \times a. \quad \text{by definition.}$$

$$a^3 \times a^2 = a \times a \times a \times a \times a = a^5 \quad \text{by definition.}$$

5 being the *sum* of 3 and 2, the boy discovers the law.

(In beginning such a lesson as this it is interesting to ask the students what index in the result they would anticipate. Generally the answer is 6.)

(3) The Euclidean (division) process of finding the H.C.F. is meaningless to the student who has not understood the underlying proposition. This proposition lends itself beautifully to experimental discovery. The teacher selects two numbers with common factors, such as 18 and 42. Under his direction any integral multiple of the first is taken, any of the second. These multiples are added. The student investigates to see if every common factor of the numbers is also a factor of this sum. Two or three more examples are quickly employed and then students are asked to make a statement as to what this investigation indicates. (Example below.) They then test whether the proposition holds for the difference between the multiples. Now that the proposition is understood, the division method has a meaning and an interest that is otherwise impossible.

$$18 \times 11 = 198$$

$$42 \times 5 = 210$$

$$\text{Sum} = 408$$

408 contains both 2, 3, 6 as factors. So the difference = 12, and contains 2, 3, 6 as factors.

(4) Another and still more interesting lesson can be given in introducing the work on "Theory of Quadratics." The purpose of the lesson is stated to be the discovery of relations existing between roots of a quadratic and co-efficients in the equation. Instructions are written on the board or given orally to this effect:—
"Write out the roots of each of the following equations:—

$$x^2 - 7x - 15 = 0;$$

$$x^2 + 8x - 3 = 0;$$

$$x^2 - 5x + 11 = 0;$$

$$x^2 + 13x + 7 = 0;$$

Add the two roots of each equation together and simplify each result. Examine to see if any relation between sum of roots and any co-efficient is indicated. If one is indicated, write a statement as to what this relation is. Deal similarly with the products of the roots. Test the accuracy or universality of your statements by using such equations as,

$$2x^2 - 4x + 7 = 0.$$

$$3x^2 + 8x - 6 = 0.$$

Revise your statements so as to make them more general." After this it is easy to get the students to see that while this investigation indicates with a reasonable degree of certainty that these relations exist, yet it is not a proof, and for this proof the general equation must be employed.

It seems to me one can hardly overstate the superiority of such a treatment. For it combines the advantage that the relations are *learned*, interest is created, and assuredly initiative and self-reliance encouraged.

The same method can be employed advantageously at times in the Upper School. For example, suppose one has deferred the treatment of the sum of the cubes of the first natural numbers until he is ready for Mathematical Induction. He directs the following experiment to be performed:—

$1^3 + 2^3 =$?	$1 + 2 =$?
$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 =$?	$1 + 2 + 3 =$?
$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 =$?	$1 + 2 + 3 + 4 =$?

"Make a statement as to what this investigation indicates as to the sum of the cubes, etc." The students will find a real delight in this work of discovery, in the midst of such a quantity of formal deductive work and exercises as are required in the Upper School.

Again, the method of studying Algebra which is concerned with the development, understanding, and testing the understanding of principles rather than with spending most of the time in working exercises, furnishes material for the independent checking of opinions. For example, a class is asked this question:—If a number be expressed as the product of two factors and I wish to multiply this product by some multiplier, shall I multiply one

only, or both factors, by that multiplier? Unless the principle has been carefully taught there will be a difference of opinion. Under wise direction, the student may check his own opinion in some such way as this: Let the product be $5 \times 8 = 40$. Multiplication of this product by three must give 120, i.e., 120 is the correct answer. If both factors be multiplied by 3 we obtain 15×24 or 360. Multiply either factor by 3 and we obtain 120. Whence the correct conclusion.

Another example—this one in cancellation. The simplification of a fraction has led to the result $\frac{y + ma}{k + mb}$. There is a difference of opinion as to whether m may or may not be cancelled. The correctness of opinion may again be tested experimentally thus: The values of the fraction $\frac{16 + 14}{9 + 21} = \frac{30}{30} = 1$. Cancelling in the way suggested in the case of above expression would give $\frac{14 + \cancel{14} 2}{9 + \cancel{2} 13} = \frac{18}{12} = 1\frac{1}{2}$, whence conclusion. Or (and this principle is necessary *ultimately*), “if the *complete* numerator and *complete* denominator of a fraction be divided by the same divisor, the value of the fraction remains unaltered.” Again, such a question as the following from the text of Dr. Tanner, of Cornell, is excellent: $\frac{v^2 - t^2}{v^3 + 1} \times \frac{3}{5t^2v^4} = ?$ May t^2 be cancelled in this example?

In the preceding I have dealt at length with experimental treatment. I would not have it inferred that this method is to be exclusively employed. Some propositions do not lend themselves to it, and even if all did, yet the student should have considerable training in the deductive proof of principles. But what is always necessary in effective teaching is that the principle should be surely grasped, and that in working exercises the student should see clearly that he is applying some clearly stated principle. He is thereby receiving training that will tend to make it a habit in later life first to obtain a proper basis for a certain course of action or belief, and then to act or believe according as this basis will prescribe.

We have thus far attempted to show the supreme importance of principles compared with mechanical work. We shall now examine how far it is possible for the student to ignore these prin-

ciples, and confine his attention to exercises, working according to a set pattern.

Take the elementary operations. He can be *told* how to add, subtract, multiply and divide, be given many examples, and attain a high degree of proficiency in their employment. Equations can be solved by applying the rules of transposition, etc., without any reference to either the meaning of an equation or the axioms employed in their solution. Factoring may be quite mechanical: even such expressions as the following may be handled correctly; $ax - ay - bx + by = a(x - y) - b(x - y) = (a - b)(x - y)$; and if he is under a strict taskmaster such pitfalls as the following will be avoided: $a(x - y) + b(x + y) = (a + b)(x - y)(x + y)$. Highest Common Factor and Lowest Common Multiple may be obtained by set rules. Simultaneous equations likewise; and again if the teacher be a grinder, every student will quickly reel off the solution of these favorite examination questions: $\frac{3}{x} + \frac{5}{y} = \frac{8}{15}$, $9y - 22x = \frac{3xy}{25}$, or

$$\begin{aligned} 2x^2 + 3xy &= 8, \\ y^2 - 2xy &= 20. \end{aligned}$$

The class that has been drilled by numerous examples to operate with fractional and negative indices will fare better on the average examination than one who has worked fewer exercises but has learned something about the origin and meaning of these later exponents.

And so on through the chapters. A striking example of this mode of procedure came to my notice not long ago. A bright class had gone through the chapters on the Binomial and had worked the problems dealing with the squares of the co-efficients and other combinations of the co-efficients, and yet not one of that class had ever heard mentioned the important and necessary principle of the equality of co-efficients of like powers of x in an identity!

But how will a student drilled entirely on exercises fare when the testing time comes at the Departmental Examinations? To me, it is a lamentable fact that if the student has had a strict taskmaster of the kind that drills on exercises almost exclusively, if a wide memorization of formulae (whether these are of importance or the reverse) has been demanded, he will too frequently fare exceedingly well. Too frequently from 60 to 90% of the paper demands this sort of preparation only.

That what the final examination paper demands from the student determines to a greater or less degree the kind of preparation he receives in the schoolroom is the plain truth. Inspectors try to discourage this kind of preparation; the evil is condemned at associations, our training schools are trying to substitute better methods, yet, as is pointed out in the last report of one of the inspectors, the practice still flourishes. We believe it will continue to flourish so long as examinations are given the supreme importance they have at the present time. This being the case, the certain conclusion is that the character of the papers should be materially altered.

This alteration should take shape in the definite elimination of useless forms, solutions requiring special expedients or tricks, and substituting therefor some simple questions requiring for their answers a clear understanding of principles. For instance, how frequently the expression $a^4 + a^2x^2 + x^4$ occurs in some connection or other in the paper, and yet what value is a knowledge of the factors of that expression? In the recent excellent text in the series edited by Prof. Percy E. Smith, of Yale, this expression does not even occur in the chapter on factoring. Of what special value is the method of solution of the system of homogeneous quadratics

$$\begin{aligned} 3x^2 - y^2 &= 23, \\ 2x^2 - xy &= 12. \end{aligned}$$

Only the student who has learned and memorized the trick of its solution will succeed in getting the marks for it. To solve the problem, "Given that 5 is one root of the equation $6x^3 - 41x^2 + 20x + 175 = 0$, find the other roots." How easy for the candidate simply to divide the expression by $x - 5$ and then solve the equation obtained by equating the quotient to zero. It would be interesting to know to how many of the candidates who obtained the marks for this question the solution had any meaning. Another example: To answer such a question as this: "Find the number of shot required to make a pile on a rectangular base having 52 on one side and 24 on the other," the candidate may simply write down the formula $\frac{n(n+1)(3m-n+1)}{6}$, substitute for m the value 52, for n the value 24, and then make the correct calculation. For this work he will receive full marks, and yet the formula is utterly valueless.

But, it will be said, it is exceedingly difficult, even impossible, to examine on a knowledge of algebraical propositions. We answer, it may be difficult, but it is not impossible.

Suppose, for example, it is desired to examine on linear equations of one unknown. Why not compose a question of two parts thus:

(a) Solve the equation, $13x - 7 = 5x + 17$, and state exactly the principle you apply in each step.

(b) Solve some equation requiring technical skill.

Or, a question is required in fractions. Why not divide into two or three parts, the first being concerned with a knowledge of some of the necessary propositions? For example:

(a) Express $\frac{5x-6}{8}$ as an equivalent fraction with 32 as denominator. State the principle you apply and show clearly how it is applied.

(b) Simplify some expression requiring some degree of expertness.

Why not insert now and then such a question as this: "In simplifying this expression, $\frac{v^2 - t^2}{v^3 + 1} \times \frac{3}{5t^2v^4}$, may t^2 be cancelled? Give reasons for your answer."

Instead of a question in H. C. F., requiring a laborious solution, one with easier manipulation might be substituted, followed by one to test the candidate's knowledge of the principle involved. Thus instead of, "Find the Highest Common Factor of $3x^5 - x^4 - 10x^3 + 20x^2 + 12x - 9$ and $6x^4 + 7x^3 - 5x^2 + 13x - 6$, substitute the following:

(a) Find the Highest Common Factor of $2x^3 - 13x^2 + 19x - 6$ and $3x^3 - 13x^2 - 4x + 4$.

(b) State the underlying principle involved in your solution of part (a).

This method of following up a question testing a candidate's skill in mere manipulation by one testing his knowledge of the principles employed was adopted last year in connection with graphs, and the paper thus given an excellent ending.

In conclusion, if there be an added educative value in the methods of teaching Algebra which are concerned with principles primarily, rather than with those methods concerned exclusively with the mere mechanical processes, then the final paper should be so constructed that the candidate who has been well taught will receive that advantage the excellence of his training demands.

ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

THE RELATION OF THE PUBLISHER TO LITERATURE IN CANADA.

BY FRANK WISE, PRESIDENT THE MACMILLAN COMPANY OF CANADA.

Technically speaking, a publisher is one whose business it is to produce and place before the public printed copies of manuscripts submitted by and accepted from authors. Before printing was invented authors laboriously copied out their own manuscripts if more than the one copy was needed, or some other, most frequently the monks, performed this tedious operation, very often illuminating the pages as they proceeded. Thus the author was to a large extent his own publisher, and after the method of reproduction made more copies available he still performed his own publishing as we may see from the title-pages of some of the earlier books which indicate that copies might be had at the shop of the publishing book-seller or at the lodgings of the author.

In the days of our grandparents when so many people read, partly because they were brought up to read and partly because they had more leisure, it was the pleasure of a great publisher to create literature, or rather, with his sacred rod, to strike the rock and bring forth fountains. To-day in Canada and the new world generally there is no leisure, there is only "unoccupied time" and not much of that. Bridge, automobiles, travelling of all kinds, and now a recrudescence of dancing occupy the time not consumed in business, so that there is but little inducement to create or encourage the production of literature as compared with the results achieved by encouragement in the middle of the 19th Century. To-day the serious in literature is mainly represented by books on economic questions and higher politics, with lately a new movement, to be sure, towards the new thought in religion—the practical breaking away from the theoretical. The taste in fiction has likewise changed from the heavier character studies of Dickens and Thackeray to the lighter vein of Arnold Bennett, Lucas, Chesterton and Wells, while the typical novels of

Mrs. Henry Wood, Anthony Trollope and Miss Carey have given place to the very frothy effusions of the hosts of so-called "popular" novelists whose productions last for as many days as their predecessors' did years.

As to magazine reading, the 19th Century saw the inception, the success, the decline and the disappearance of three very successful magazines—Temple Bar, Macmillan's and Longman's. These popular periodicals were maintained by as many publishing houses and were contributed to by the important writers of the day. As long as the old school of readers lived these magazines flourished, but when the younger and more lively generation arrived the older, quieter and unillustrated periodicals had to make way for the illustrated magazine, whose reading matter is as lively and as ephemeral as its illustrations. Now we have a horde of illustrated monthlies on both continents—so many indeed that no one pretends to look at more than one or two each month, and even then one rarely takes the trouble to follow the serial story running through each. He satisfies himself with an article on reform of some kind, written in a spectacular manner calculated to engage his temporary interest; the inner life of an actor or actress with pictures of him or her and their town and country houses; the English magazines picturing the nobility, the American the daughters of millionaires who have married other millionaires' sons, or members of the nobility of older countries. In other words, the reading, like the living, of the day is all for the moment and produces nothing lasting.

The magazines of last century were bound when complete, those of to-day are thrown away; their highly glazed paper will not even serve to light a fire.

What are we doing in Canada? We see few, if any, of the current English magazines—they do not interest us in Canada particularly—a land where the same conditions of life do not obtain. We see more of the countless American productions. I say we "see" them because it is our eye more than our mental ear which is appealed to by them. We ourselves have a weekly publication copied so closely from its cousins across the line that it is difficult at sight to distinguish them apart, and we have a Canadian magazine which makes a very meritorious and determined effort to encourage local writers to portray local life and events, but it has to appeal to a more or less restricted audience.

In addition to these there is a list of weekly papers which cater to the farmer and his wife and for the most part are pretty poor material.

The most meritorious effort in the way of a Canadian periodical and the nearest approach on this side of the water to the sterling *Reviews* of the old country, whose editor and publisher deserves the most unstinted praise for his efforts, is the *University Magazine*. Its objects, as stated in each number, are:—

“To express an educated opinion upon questions immediately concerning Canada; and to treat freely in a literary way all matters which have to do with politics, industry, philosophy, science and art.”

As such it deserves all the encouragement that can be given to it by those thinking persons in Canada who have at heart the encouragement and betterment of Canadian literature and expressed thought. I shall be pardoned, I am sure, for alluding to it particularly by name, but here is a striking instance of a publisher's relation to the literature of his country. I need only refer to the table of contents of the last few numbers to call attention to the well-written articles bearing on our native writers, our own affairs here and our affairs in relation to those in Great Britain, and south of the boundary.

The relation of the publisher to the literature of his country is twofold; in the encouragement he gives to authors by publishing their MSS; and to readers by the format of the books issued. After that, the teacher plays a part as important as that of the publisher. Do not misunderstand me when I insist that on the teacher largely depends the development of a reading public in the community. The sooner such a reading public is developed the sooner can we offer inducements to our newer writers to remain at home and our older ones to return to us and write in Canada and of Canada for an enlightened people in Canada. For at present Canadian short story writers get five times—yes ten times—the price for their labours in the United States that we can offer them in Canada. and you can no more expect or ask a writer to work for a less amount in Canada than you could ask an engine driver to accept a lower wage in Canada merely because he was a Canadian when he could go over the line and drive an American locomotive at double the wage. If there were not

enough Canadian travellers to haul on a Canadian train the engineer would be compelled to go to the States to get a living.

Canada is a land of magnificent distances and in the Euclidian definition of length without breadth is even more distant in its component parts than is its neighbour on the continent. We have a pigmy population compared with our size in square miles and yet we have a coast to coast stretch largely in excess of our neighbour at his widest. This physical peculiarity makes concentration in manufactures and their distribution very difficult, and therefore infinitely more so the concentration and dissemination of anything in the way of national writing expressive of national life or thought. The intimate affairs of the Maritime Provinces have not much of interest west of Ontario, while those of the prairie provinces and British Columbia mean as little to that part of Canada east of Ottawa, and we, as a nation, are apt to be as interested in the overthrow of Tammany in New York or the interrupted wanderings of an American paranoiac as we are in Montreal's success in overturning her municipal regime or in British Columbia's difficulty with Hindu immigrants. That being the case what can we do as Canadians, east and west, to foster, to produce and to disseminate a native literature which shall be first of all good literature; second, typical of Canada and Canadian life and conditions, and third, not so local that it can interest only those who are acquainted with the locality in which the scene is laid?

Probably the first requirement I have mentioned—good literature—presents the greatest difficulty and in a measure controls the other two. If a very meritorious piece of writing emanates from any part of Canada the author finds it at present much easier to obtain a publisher in one of the two great English-speaking countries outside of his own borders—England or the United States. The former has a population of over forty millions and several colonies to boot, while the States now approaches the hundred million mark. A publisher in either of these countries is not apt to take a book published primarily in Canada mainly on account of the excessive cost of production in Canada and, as far as the United States is concerned, for copyright protection reasons. For, while by the new English copyright law the product of a British brain is protected, that same product can be appropriated by a

United States publisher without compensation to the author unless it is set up, printed and bound in the United States.

Of a book produced in either of the countries I have mentioned a Canadian publisher can buy an edition already manufactured and thereby obtain the Canadian market.

This, I would remind you, covers only such works as can be considered international in interest and importance, and I am sorry to say gives but little encouragement to writers who are compelled to restrict their pens mainly, if not entirely, to the recording of scenes purely Canadian or, in a geographical sense, provincial in their nature. It is much to be regretted that a publisher in Canada frequently has to decline a MS which contains much of interest to certain Canadian localities but not of sufficient general interest to warrant an audience. Many stories and incidents obtained from the early settlers will therefore permanently be lost sight of.

It must be remembered that for a great many years America had no native literature to speak of. The group of New England writers bravely kept at it and won an audience, restricted to be sure, because their best could not be stifled, but there was no one in America outside of New England who had the time to write when his whole existence was absorbed in wringing a living as a pioneer out of a stern and uncompromising earth. So, practically the whole of the reading population of the United States for a very long period depended mainly on the writers of the old country, who had the advantage of living in a land that had been settled for hundreds of years, which gave them moreover a picturesque background for their stories.

Dickens and Thackeray had as eager an audience in the States as was to be found in England and the writings of even the lesser lights of the time were known and appreciated as much in New York, Boston and the States as in London and the counties.

Gradually the pioneer pushed his way further and further west leaving the cleared country to be built up in settlements, towns and cities with a population gradually developing into classes, the more fortunate of them developing a leisure, part of which could be devoted to reading, and so, gradually, to meet the demand, there arose native writers ready to supply a native and local literature.

At first much of this of necessity had to be poor, but now from East to West, or rather from West to East, pours a constant stream of manuscripts to the American publisher, much of which in its printed form finds its way to England and Canada.

We Canadians are still very young as a nation; we are still pioneering; we grow out of our clothes almost over night, and I feel very strongly that we should not be in a hurry to announce our "literature". If we have anything good enough to make its way in the world at large let us rejoice that our writers and our poets have their audiences, sharing with what is good in the literature of other lands, but let us not cozen ourselves into the belief that all our geese are swans. We do not really think so ourselves, and even if we were honest in such a belief we could not persuade the rest of the world to agree with us.

Canadian publishers are often accused of being loath to encourage native talent, but it should be remembered that the publisher, like the lawyer or any other, follows his profession very largely to make a financial success, and he would be the last to decline a MS. if he could see in it promise of a success. Successful writers very largely are born, not made, and the Canadian writer who has a story to tell and can tell it well has as large an audience awaiting him as has the successful writer in England, Australia or the United States.

The foregoing is only one point in which the publisher comes into relation with literature in Canada and is, of course, purely the *creative* side of the question. There is, however, a side which I consider much more important and might be termed the *appreciative* side. In this the publisher can only help by giving you properly edited, properly printed, properly bound books from which to teach the boys and girls under your care. Young people are so susceptible to impressions that only a properly made book should be placed in their hands. To the credit of the Ontario Department of Education be it said they insist on proper spacing, adequate margins and type of sufficient size. If a child is brought up on attractively produced books he will likely come to consider them as familiar friends and he is thus more likely to turn to books with pleasure than if his recollection made the mere sight of a book repellent to him. At this point the power of the publisher ceases, and henceforth the teacher has to assume the grave responsibility of making or marring a future reader. Of

course one cannot deny that the home and general surroundings will go a long way towards undoing what a teacher can do in school, not only will a sordid, uneducated family life act as a damper on any literary enthusiasm you may have instilled into your pupil, but the "canned music" of the phonograph and the "canned stories" of the moving-picture shows will take the edge off any but the keenest literary appetite.

Teach your pupils the rudiments of composition and if any has a story to tell he will find a way to tell it. What I want to plead for to-day is that you will teach the child to read for his pleasure, not just to pass examinations. Make him such a lover of what has been written worthy of being printed that he will have a greed for books which shall exceed the allurements even of that laziest form of modern entertainment—the moving pictures. You cannot feed all your chickens on the same food, however. If your girls cannot find entertainment in Scott, Dickens, Jane Austen, or Cranford, but can be brought into the fold of readers through the pages of Miss Alcott, then, much as I personally disapprove of Miss Alcott's style, make them enthusiastic readers of "Little Women" and her other books and try to build up from that foundation. If you fail in laying a foundation even with Alcott bricks I fear the next and last state of that girl is "the movies."

A boy is by nature more or less a philistine. He wants action and a certain amount of blood spilt in his early authors. Let this blood be the blood of Knights and Gentlemen, and not of outlaws and cut-throats. The blood spilt in a tourney is a more noble stream than that spilled by a Jesse James "shooting up" a sheriff's posse attempting his capture.

I have been speaking heretofore of boys and girls in the higher grades in to-day's schools. I am hopeful that the oncoming generation will have a much better foundation to work on. For children from the lowest grades up, now for the past few years, there have been prepared little books in which are told in attractive language the big stories of the ages. Little people now have as intimate book friends the Greek, Roman, and Norse heroes, the Arthurian Knights, Wallace, Bruce, Philip Sidney, Elizabeth, Nelson, Wellington, Gordon and Livingstone, and in fiction dozens of heroes and heroines from Ivanhoe to Little Nell. The various Provincial Departments of Education are encouraging the use of

these little supplementary readers in the grades so that when the boys and girls come to you in the higher classes from now on they will have a foundation to be built on which will make it easier to hold the attention and so to encourage them to attack the larger books, the classics in their completeness, and to acquire a love for reading that which is really worth while. When all is said and done, what can give the same pleasure as reading when it is done as a pleasure? Man is human; he is compelled to spend eight hours in eating and sleeping, generally he has to work eight hours, and so has eight hours left for his amusement. The provinces, cities and schools are spending hundreds of thousands yearly for the building and support of libraries. How are we fitting our children to make use of them? Shall we teach the child to read in order to pass examinations or shall we teach him to read for pleasure? What pleasure can be gained from reading a page of Shakespeare containing three lines of text and 33 lines of notes? We should not stuff the boy so full of half-baked science and half-baked history that he has neither time nor inclination to read more literature than enough wherewith to pass his examinations. Encourage, do not stifle, his imagination, for what shall it profit a man if he gain a knowledge of the whole world of business if he lose his own soul of imagination?

*THE THEATRES OF SHAKESPEARE'S DAY.**

BY W. E. McNEILL, M.A., PH.D.

The Elizabethans were fond of music and their plays are plentifully interspersed with songs. Sometimes, as in the scene where Lear recovers from his madness and recognizes Cordelia, music accompanies the speeches, as to-day, for the heightening of emotional effect. They delighted also in vigorous action, noise, and spectacle; and they got them all. Sword fights, wrestling matches and the like, the noise of trumpets and bells and cannons occur in a great many plays. Thunder was made by "the rolled bullet and tempestuous drum," and even rain and mists were produced. Some of the stage effects would have done credit to a modern producer with all his elaborate machinery. For instance, here is a stage direction from Heywood's "Golden Age": "Enter the three fatal sisters, with a rock, a thread, and a pair of shears; bringing in a globe in which they put three lots. Jupiter draws heaven; at which Iris descends and presents him with his eagle, crown, and sceptre, and his thunderbolt. Jupiter first ascends upon the eagle and after him Ganymede." Perhaps the following from the same dramatist's "Brazen Age" is even more interesting: "Jupiter above strikes him [Hercules] with a thunderbolt, his body sinks, and from the heavens descends a hand in a cloud, that from the place where Hercules was burnt, brings up a star, and fixeth it in the firmament." An easily accessible example of a stage effect almost as striking, you will find in the case of Jupiter and his eagle in the fifth act of "Cymbeline." If a modern manager were to advertise any such scenes as these or were to arrange a procession so splendid as some of those in "Henry VIII.," he would attract curious crowds eager for the mere spectacle.

In talking of the theatre buildings themselves, I tried to make you see that they were by no means rude structures; and perhaps some of the facts I have just mentioned may surprise many of you who like myself may have been brought up to believe that the

*This address was mainly concerned with the situation and construction of the theatres of Shakespeare's day and with their facilities for presenting plays. It depended for clearness and interest upon the illustrations provided by lantern slides. As it could not be made intelligible without the pictures, only the concluding part, which needs no illustrations, can be printed here.

Elizabethan stage was absolutely bare. I was told, for instance, that localities had to be indicated by signboards, reading now, "This is a forest," and now, "This is a bedroom," and I had a very poor idea of the capacity of the Elizabethan stage. As my final topic this morning, then, I want to consider the mounting of Elizabethan plays.

First, a word about the signboards. Apart from a few special conditions, there is no evidence of their employment; and when they were employed, the purpose was not to indicate that a certain scene was a bedroom but to tell the audience whose bedroom it was. In other words, locality boards, when used, served chiefly to do what our modern theatre programme does. We look at it to know where the scene was laid, not to find out whether a bedroom or a forest is represented.

That abundant properties were used on the Elizabethan stage, no one now disputes. There was, of course, no elaborate and minutely realistic setting such as the modern producer aims at, but there were properties enough to indicate clearly what and where a localized scene was; and in some directions money was lavishly spent in the mounting of the plays.

I may begin with a bit of *a priori* evidence, though it is not needed. In the primitive medieval drama, as it existed hundreds of years before Shakespeare, the properties were often surprisingly elaborate, as we learn from the old town records and other sources. From the beginning great attention was given to clothing. Souls destined to hell wore black, red, and yellow coats; those destined to heaven wore white coats; devils had horns, claws, cloven feet, and a forked tail; apostles and saints had gilt perukes and beards. We find charges in the accounts for a pair of new gloves for St. Thomas, a coat of leather for Christ, three skins for Noah's coat, a pound of hemp to mend the angels' heads, and a face and hair for the Father. There are bills for gunpowder, for ironwork for hell, for fifty fathoms of line for the clouds, for three painted cloths to hang about the pageant. In the ascension pageant of the Chester series, there is a scene in midair, where Christ is clothed in blood-red garments and attended by a throng of spirits. In another pageant, the descent of the Holy Ghost is represented by two angels singing responsively in the upper air, sprinkling flowers on the heads of the apostles. It is not conceivable that the age of

theatres and of professional actors should have omitted effects produced by artisans two hundred years before.

In case some of you may not be aware of the ability of the workmen of the sixteenth century to produce effective stage settings, I wish to direct your attention to the records concerning the entertainments at court; and this will be further *a priori* evidence. Entertainments had been given at court for many years, but under Henry VIII. and Elizabeth they assumed the greatest magnificence. At times the expense of a single entertainment was hundreds of thousands of dollars. From time to time professional actors were summoned to court to give plays. Shakespeare himself was often an actor at court; many of his plays were staged there; and some of them seem to have been written specifically for a court audience, such as "Love's Labour's Lost," and "A Midsummer Night's Dream." The court records show that properties of all kinds that could possibly be demanded by the text were available,—armour, swords, and guns; beards long and short, white, brown, grey, and red; wheat sheaves, snowflakes, and flowers in paper and silk; heads of devils, lions, goats, and other beasts complete; devices for making thunder and lightning. They knew how, with silvered or gilded leaves of paper, to make a simple piece of wood appear of solid metal; they made animals readily, sometimes of linen, sometimes of the real skins. They had houses of painted canvas, a sky with clouds, forests, mountains, rocks, palaces, prisons, chateaux, cities, villages,—all made or painted as in our day. Says M. Feuillerat, who has gone into this subject very fully: "We know from this study that our ideas of sixteenth century staging must be changed. At court pieces were mounted with extreme care, and one can even go further and affirm that the officers of the Revels would not have learned much from our scene setters. An attempt was made to create perfect illusion."

Now of course the public theatres could not afford such an elaborate equipment. But is there not a strong presumption that they had more than we have hitherto granted them? Did the actors who played before the queen with an abundance of properties and with painted scenery never dream of improving their own productions on the public stages? Or, again, how could they rehearse their plays for the court if they were wholly unaccustomed to properties? Would Shakespeare, after seeing

"Love's Labour's Lost" properly produced at court, be willing to go back to the bare boards of his own theatres in days when a half dozen playhouses were in keen competition.

There is positive evidence of two kinds that the Elizabethan stage was well equipped with properties. The first evidence comes from the stage directions of the plays. These speak of tables, chairs, beds, tombs, trees, shrubbery, mossy banks; we know that the walls were hung with arras; and Iachimo's description of Imogen's bedroom by which he convinced her husband that she had been unfaithful merely supplements what we know from other sources:

. . . . it was hanged
 With tapestry of silk and silver . . .
 the chimney
 Is south the chamber; and the chimney piece
 Chaste Dian bathing . . .
 The roof o' the chamber
 With golden cherubins fretted; her andirons—
 I had forgot them—were two winking Cupids
 Of silver, each on one foot standing, nicely
 Depending on their brands.

Besides all this were the devices for the raising and lowering of thrones and people, as where Jupiter descends on his eagle, and devices for producing thunder, lightning, rain, and mists, of which I have already spoken.

The second main source of our information is Henslowe's "Diary." Philip Henslowe was a theatre magnate of Shakespeare's day. He controlled at various times four or five theatres and three or four companies; and half the dramatists of the period wrote or mended plays for him. He left behind a MS., now known as Henslowe's Diary, with entries from 1592 to 1614. From this we get much valuable information about the theatres. In one place Henslowe made out a list of his properties [March 10th, 1598]. Here are a few: rock, cage, tomb, hell-mouth, bedstead, steeple, chime of belis, moss banks, snake, Iris's head and rainbow, black dog, a great horse, Cerberus with three heads, etc. And finally there is more than a suggestion of painted scenes. At court we know that the sky, houses, cities, and the like were represented on painted cloths, and so when Henslowe includes

among his properties "the clothe of the Sone and Mone" and "the sittie of Rome," and when he has an entry of money paid the painter of properties, it is hard to believe that there was not some painted scenery.

We learn from Henslowe that great sums* were spent on costumes. The Diary is full of entries like the following:

"Black buckram to make a suit for a fire drake, 3s. 6d.

"Devils' suits and witches gown for "Two Brothers," 26s.

"A suit of motley for the Scotchman for the play called 'Malcolm King of Scots,' 30s.

"The mending of High Davies' tan coat which was eaten with the rats, 7s. 6d.

"To buy a robe for Time, 40s.

"To buy a French hood, 10s.

"Apparel for Mahomet, 10s. 4d.

"Doublet and hose of sea water green satin, £3.

"To buy a doublet and a pair of hose of cloth of gold laid thick with black silk lace, 58s. [about \$100]

"To buy a black velvet jerkin laid thick with black silk lace and a pair of round hose . . . of silk with silver lace, £4 10s." [about \$150]

At one date there was spent for the play of "The Seven Wise Masters" in taffetas and satins alone, the sum of £20 [\$700]; and two later entries bring the amount up to £38 or about \$1,300 of our money. For a play called "Cardinal Wolsey" there are twelve separate entries in the accounts, making a total expenditure for costumes in this one play of £31 2s., or about \$1,000 in our money. It is evident, therefore, both from the sums spent and the quality of the materials purchased, that the costumes were of considerable magnificence.

Clearly then our oldtime ideas regarding the crudeness of Elizabethan staging must be revised. The theatres, as I have already shown, cost large sums of money and were regarded by their Puritan critics as evidence of the age's prodigality and extravagance; notwithstanding the absence of a complete roof, all except the groundlings were protected from the weather in comfortable galleries, and sat through the performances with minds alert be-

*The sums mentioned should be multiplied by seven or eight, in order to get the equivalent in modern money.

cause not befogged by bad air. In this respect we may well envy the Elizabethans. The arrangement of the stage, with the inner part and upper part provided with curtains and the possibility of a swift succession of scenes, made easy a thoroughly adequate production of the plays. And finally, the properties used as an aid to the imagination were often costly and elaborate.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

BOOKS AND READING.

JOHN ROGERS, LINDSAY.

I need not dwell upon the advantages that are to be derived from a familiar acquaintance with books. If you have made a few choice authors your bosom friends, with whom you seek refuge in hours of anxiety or trouble, who speak to you words of comfort when you are bowed down with sorrow and annoyance, who are a solace and recreation, cheering you up and reminding you of the better and higher things of life, no words of mine can help you to hold those tried and true friends in greater estimation than that in which you now hold them. And if, on the other hand, books were to you no better occupation than walking or riding, a mere pastime like base-ball or lawn-tennis, then I fear you could not understand, and words of praise that I might bestow upon them, and the eulogies of great men, which I might quote for you, would be to you meaningless phrases. Suffice it to say that, I know no greater solace to the soul than the soothing words of a good book. Indeed, is not the Good Book itself a visible grace? How often has not God spoken to men through the words of the printed or the written page? Thus has He spoken, and does He speak, to missions the world over through the loving tender words of that low, sweet voice of humanity. And so I take it for granted that you all prize books, and accordingly will endeavor to read a leaf out of my experience, and such experience of others as occurs to me, as to the best manner of using them, with the hope that out of it all you may be enabled to glean a few practical hints.

We are told that "to the making of books there is no end," but there is a limit to every man's reading capacity. We, all of us, must make up our minds that we cannot read everything; that the longest life, most rigidly economized, can compass but a small portion of this world's knowledge; that if, in order to keep our intellect from starving, we would store up some available

provision therefor, we must confine ourselves to a selection of subjects, small in number and limited in range. In making this selection we should consult both our present mental acquirements and our daily occupations.

It is evident that the class of reading suitable for a scholar of trained mental habits is not the class of reading that will interest the desultory reader, who has picked up his knowledge here and there, and has never disciplined his mind into habits of severe thought. The scholar is in a position to appreciate the great classics of his own or other languages. He can understand why Shakespeare is so esteemed; he can appreciate the noble grandeur of Milton; he is prepared to be thrilled by the classic prose of an Edmund Burke or a Cardinal Newman, because he has learned, in the language of Ruskin, "how to form conceptions of proper range or grasp, and proper dignity or worthiness." To the desultory reader these authors are dry and uninteresting; he may praise them because it is the fashion to commend them, but he is apt to take more pleasure in the last sensational report of his daily paper, or the last penny dreadful that has been issued. Only that which takes momentary hold upon his imagination can fix his attention. He may have attained the years of manhood, but so far as reading is concerned his mind is still the mind of a child who reads his book only till he has found the meaning of the pictures it contains. Well has it been said: "Desultory reading is, indeed, very mischievous, by fostering habits of loose, discontinuous thought, by turning the memory into a common sewer for rubbish of all sorts to float through, and by relaxing the power of attention, which of all the faculties most needs care, and is most improved by it. But a well-regulated course of study will no more weaken the mind than hard exercise will weaken the body; nor will a strong understanding be weighed down by its knowledge, any more than an oak is by its leaves, or than Sampson by his locks." Therefore, we may broadly say, that according to the various stages of one's mental development will one require different grades of reading. No general list of books will cover every individual case. What is suitable for one man may be unsuitable for another. Let each one ask himself, in taking up a book, what special benefit he expects to derive from its perusal. Say to yourself: "Why do I take up this book? Is it not simply that I may pass the time, or be amused, or rest my weary over-

wrought brain?" Be it so. Rest and amusement are legitimate objects, even as the theatre and the opera are legitimate. Amuse yourself with your books. Is the book abounding in wit and humor? All the better. Only see to it that the wit instils no poison, that it leaves no sting, that you do not rise from its play of shafts with bitterness in your thoughts or callousness in your heart. See to it that the humor be genuine and kindly, and calculated to broaden and deepen your sympathies with your fellow-man. See to it that after having read the book you can look with greater charity upon human frailty, speak more kindly of your neighbor, and hold his shortcomings in greater tolerance.

For, although the distance be
Great twixt wise and witless words.
Still, 'tis from two different chords
Springs the sweetest harmony.

Such is the sympathizing humour of Hood; such is the innocent charm of the *Pickwick Papers*: such the harmless laughter created by that most genial humorist, Ward. In these and such books you sought amusement, and beneath their genial rays you found moral and intellectual growth. Much depends upon the nature of the work and much upon the manner in which you propose to carry it out. If you would succeed, your subject must be such as not to lead you beyond your depth.

But there are authors and authors, and I would not have you make any author your bosom friend who was not worthy of your confidence. He should be a man with a purpose, a man who speaks out because he cannot remain silent, a man who has a mission to sing or say to us noble things that have hitherto remained unsaid, and that have been only partly uttered, till he grasps their whole meaning and gives them their full-rounded expression. And that expression should make for good. This is the good book whereof Milton speaketh, "A good book is the precious life-blood of a master spirit, embalmed and treasured up on purpose to a life beyond life." The definition is not overestimated. Men write their years, their life-blood, their very souls into their masterpieces. You receive their ideas through the rhythm of well-polished sentences, and you see nothing of the patient toil and drudgery that these sentences conceal. We may lay it down as a

general rule that the smoother the polish and the more rhythmic the sentence, the more severe has been the study back of it all. And when we are reading any great masterpiece, and we begin to find it wearisome, let us not give it up; rather let us brace ourselves anew to the task with the reflection of the years of drudgery the master gave to the gathering together the materials of this great work, and then the unlimited patience with which he toiled at those materials, transmuting them in his mind till they came forth polished and stamped with his personality, and made current coin for all time. The effort will endear the book to us all the more, and imprint it on our memory all the better.

Should you ask me how to read, I can do little more than repeat rules that I have learned elsewhere, many of which you know. Bacon seems to me to have summed up all the rules for reading in his own terse style. "Read not," he says "to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but weigh and consider, some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts, others to be read, but not curiously, and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention." This says everything.

Read with attention. Where the reading-matter is congenial to the reader there is no difficulty. But where one is not accustomed to reading, or where the reading-matter has no special interest, it is with an effort that one learns to control one's attention. I conceive a reader may in the following manner acquire this control:

(1) Set aside daily, according to leisure or occupation, a given portion of time for reading. The daily occurrence at precisely the same hour may be irksome, but it soon creates a habit which finally becomes a pleasure.

(2) Keep up the practice of using that time for the one purpose and nothing else. This induces the habit all the sooner, and renders it all the more profitable.

(3) Focus the attention during the time of reading in such a manner that the mind becomes wholly occupied with the reading matter. Better is a daily reading of half an hour made with sustained attention than a reading of two hours made in an indolent, half-dreamy fashion.

(4) Read with method. Absence of method in one's reading is a source of great distraction. Give yourself the habit whilst reading of making a mental catalogue of your impressions. Distinguish between the statements that are doubtful, and probable, and certain; between those that are of opinion, and credence, and presumption. You will find this practice of great aid in sustaining attention.

(5) When, in spite of all these precautions, you begin to find your thoughts wandering away from the page upon which your eyes are set, leave the book aside for the time being and take up the reading of another subject that is more likely to fix your attention. We are told that Mr. Gladstone—that grand old man of such physical endurance, and such wonderful intellectual activity—was wont to keep three distinct volumes on three distinct subjects open before him, and when he found attention beginning to flag in the reading of one, he immediately turned to another. The practice is admirable for the trained intellect. The change brings rest to the mind and keeps it from growing wearied.

Read with a purpose. Lay out for yourself a definite object, and let all your reading converge upon that object until your purpose is attained. This is the only reading that will be remembered. Books perused in aimless fashion are soon forgotten; indeed, are seldom remembered.

Furthermore, reading with a purpose helps to economize time and brain energy. We soon learn that there are many things we had better leave unread as so many distractions from the main line of our readings. Then we begin to find out that, after we know all that a book has to tell us bearing directly on our subject, we would be losing time in reading farther, and so we put the book aside. With practice we soon discover the short cuts to our subjects, and save ourselves the reading of irrelevant matters. We become practised in the rare art of knowing when and what not to read. Be honest in your readings. Cultivate honesty of judgment, honesty of opinion, honesty of expression, so that you may be able to form an honest estimate of books. A book is commended as a classic, and you are unable to perceive its worth. This inability may arise from two causes: either you are not adequately educated up to the point of being able to appreciate such a book, or you have grown beyond the need

of such a book. If the book is beyond your grasp, do not attempt to read it; put it aside, and in the meantime read up other matters in which you will find greater pleasure. But do not lose sight of this book. After a year or two try it again, and if you have been reading to some purpose your intellect will have expanded to the comprehension of the book that had been formerly beyond your reach. We, all of us, will find profit in educating ourselves up to a full appreciation of the great world-authors.

Then there are books that one outgrows. Every mind, acting in its normal state, passes through a process of development. What delights the child may be insipid to the man. The books of our youth are always pleasant memories to us, but we have no desire to spend our manhood hours upon them. Other books and other subjects, more befitting our riper years, absorb our attention. So it is with the different stages of a people's existence. Every age has its own peculiar wants and its own standards of excellence. Thus it not unfrequently happens that books which were a revelation to our fathers have become mere common-places to us. This may arise from the fact that the thought which was novel when first presented to the previous generation has filtered through the various strata of society till it has become common property; we have grown familiar with it; it no longer excites the enthusiasm it did upon its first appearance. The book has done its work. Our age has another set of wants, calling for another set of thoughts, and we prize more highly the book supplying food for our aspirations.

Be honest in your researches. Read both sides of every human question under proper guidance. Individual judgments are misleading, and it is only by comparison of various opinions that you can get at the real state of the case. Under no circumstances is the censure of an enemy to be accepted unchallenged and unsifted. Do not be afraid of the truth. It may tell against your favorite author, or favorite principle, or favorite hobby. But facts are of more worth than misplaced admiration or misconceived theory. Let in the light. What we want is the truth. Keep clear of whitewashing books. It is not lasting.

Seek to master the book you read. To every book there is a positive and a negative side. In order to get at the positive side place yourself in sympathy with the author. Read the book

from that point of view from which he wrote it. Divest yourself for the time being, of your own hobbies and your own standard of criticism. You thus stand out of your own light. Afterwards look to the negative side of the book. Note how far the author has gone over the ground of his subject-matter, and wherein he falls short in his treatment. Read perseveringly. Keep at your book till you have finished it. Do not yield to discouragement because you are not making the progress you had anticipated. Were naught else to come of this steady reading habit than the mental discipline we would be the gainers.

Should you ask me what to read, I could not advise you definitely. The choice will greatly depend upon yourself. Lists of books, except for the special lines of study, are valueless. You have before you the whole range of literature and thought, from "Alice in Wonderland"—a child's book which none of us are too old to profit by—to that beautiful creation of a mother's love and a woman's genius, "Little Lord Fauntleroy."

Before selecting draw the line between the literature of the hour, that is so much foam upon the current of time, flecking its surface for a moment and passing away into oblivion, and the literature which is a possession for all time, whose foundations are deeply laid in human nature, and whose structure withstands the storms of adversity and the eddies of events. The literature of the hour we cannot ignore; it has its uses; but we may and ought to guard against wasting more time and energy than is absolutely necessary.

THE IMPORTANCE OF SONG AND PLAY AS FACTORS
IN EDUCATION FOR RURAL LIFE.

MRS. H. B. MILLER, O.A.C., GUELPH.

MR. CHAIRMAN, AND FELLOW-TEACHERS,—

It is my privilege to call your attention, very briefly, to a consideration of the importance of Song and Play as factors in education for rural life.

I believe that hitherto Song and Play have not enjoyed their rightful place in our scheme of education. They have not received the attention to which their force as *Allies in Education for life in the country* entitles them.

Everywhere we see cherished the traditions of work, not play. People seem to be ignorant of the educational value of play; indeed, in many homes it is looked on with an unfavorable eye. They will tell you there that you will never make a living by it! No, perhaps not, but through play we may *learn to live*, which is better, for "life is more than meat."

Children there are expected to learn the meaning of justice, courage, co-operation, fairness and many other qualities from the dictionary; but they learn these in a true sense, not from a dictionary but on the playground.

Play gives real value to tenacity, courage, fairness, courtesy, cheerfulness, cleverness, brute force, long before the names of these qualities are learned and its impressions become character before the words can be spelled. We all know that the country is lacking in means of healthful recreation. It has no play places. We have even lost the tradition of play. Our children have not been taught to play the old games nor to sing the old songs. Play has become commercialized.

This instinct for play which is inherent in every human being, vital and inseparable from life, has been ignored in the lives of country children, and instead of enjoying life to the fullest country people now pay a fee to see other people play. Why, animals, even old animals, play:

"The old cow also, she's glad winter's over,
So she kick herself up and start off on de race;
Down by de reever de wil' duck is quackin';
Along by de shore leetle sandpiper run.

De bull frog is grompin' an' doré is jompin',
 Dey all got der own way for mak' it, de fun."

I read somewhere in an article on Denmark how when she had been worsted at arms by Germany, and nearly bankrupt, she went home, and like the "Great Djinn of all the Deserts," sat down with her chin in her hand to think up a great magic—and the magic she thought up was that every boy and girl in Denmark should have scientific training in Agriculture, and in singing as a necessary adjunct to agricultural life. The one to help them to maintain a prosperous country to love and fight for, if necessary—the other to teach patriotism, courage and love of home; with the result that to-day Denmark stands in the front rank of efficient, progressive, prosperous, home-making, home-keeping, contented people who sing as they work.

Honore Greeley said "To be conscious of a need is to be far on our way whereby we shall at last overcome it." The newspaper and magazine articles of the day show at least a dawning consciousness of our need of play and play places.

With the dreary work-a-day world surrounding our children, contrast the Biblical version, "And the streets of the city shall be beautiful with the children playing in the streets." Think of the English games on village greens. Remember Greek life and art, ideal people making play the chief instrument of education.

I need not remind you that this neglect of Play and Song in school and country life has had its goodly share of influence in depopulating the rural districts. Nor need I remind you of how the rural school and rural school teacher have been held delinquent.

The re-directed country school, educating for life in the country in terms of country life—the new kind of school we so earnestly desire to see established—must take cognizance of this and give to Song and Play an honored place in school life; whence they shall radiate and enrich the lives of everyone in the community.

If we could get them on the list of subjects for Entrance examinations, their future would be assured, and the rural problem well on its way to solution.

If we would but keep in mind the fact that school should be educating for *life*, not merely for examinations; in short, if we had more *vision* we would more often call to our aid these worthy

allies, Song and Play, which take time from perilous and stupid idleness and make for self-reliant, efficient, courteous, social human beings.

Country children especially need organized play for the cultivation and development of a community spirit. They need play because they do not co-operate well. They yearn for companionship which conditions prevent, and it is largely this natural unsatisfied craving for companionship—the social instinct—which lures them in the end to the city.

As teachers, be sympathetic and interested in play. Be leaders; directing, controlling, guiding, always remembering that play is indispensable to the highest development of the boy and girl, and determines largely what the future man and woman will be. Also remember that it is *pulmonary* rather than *cerebral* capacity which is the best promise of future usefulness.

A happy memory is our richest possession. When we have forgotten the long list of cities, towns, lakes and rivers, the heights of mountains and value of exports and imports, which we labored so long to memorize, when we can no longer distinguish between a predicate objective and an objective predicate, we shall find graven on our memory among many others the lesson in courage and fair-play learned on the playground when the school bully was enlightened by a boy half his size in defence of one unable to defend himself.

I need not enlarge on the lessons we learned there except to say that it was on the playground we learned lessons never forgotten—that it was there we learned to “Play up, play up, and play the game.”

With reference to the importance of Song it may perhaps be sufficient for me to recall to your minds Fletcher’s aphorism quoted by Carlyle in his essay on Burns: “Let me make the Songs of a people and you shall make its Laws.”

Think of the plane upon which that puts Song! “Let me make the Songs of a people and you shall make its Laws.” And we have been trifling with, if not actively neglecting, such a force.

What shall we sing? All the old favorites and the best songs of every age and country that we can gather. An injustice has been done the child who has not early been taught to sing “It came upon the midnight clear, That glorious song of old.” “While Shepherds watched Their Flocks by Night,” “Good King

Wenceslaus looked out on the feast of Stephen," together with folk songs and representative songs of the people whose descendant he is. The one time favorite "Rounds" deserve to be revived if only for the training they give in co-operation. Nature songs are beautiful and children appreciate and enjoy them. "Nature Songs," by Florence Hoare, music by G. Lewis, is a charming collection of thirty-six songs published by J. Curwen & Sons, 34 Bernier Street, London W., England, and may be had for about 90 cents. This book makes a valuable addition to any school library. Singing games are the rightful inheritance of the children of all ages and all countries.

In both Song and Play the ages of the children must be taken into account, but there should be some of both in which all participate simultaneously.

When shall we sing? We should sing something every day. Two or three minutes in the morning for an opening song, the same time for a song at the close of the school day, is the very least time we should give and there should be periods to suit the special circumstances of the school programme—movable but not neglectable—given to singing.

In every school experience there come psychologic moments, where the atmosphere is bristling with possibilities, tense situations when tact is of more value than the whole *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and tact whispers "Throw open the windows, everyone stand and sing." The electrical storm is gone, the atmosphere cleared, and work cheerfully resumed.

Music and song may be made the means of drawing the whole community out to meet together in the school house as a common centre, and only those who have experienced the long, long silences of country life in winter are able to estimate the enjoyment that a simple little programme of song, charade, recitation and readings may give to country dwellers who seldom leave their own homes. If they can be got to take part, so much the better. They delight to hear their children sing or recite, and by these means they make their own happiness and make a genuine article, instead of paying for an imitation one, which is not satisfying.

When we pay due attention to this side of our work, and we can, and will do it, we shall lift the reproach from the rural school of having failed in its part towards educating for country life and helping to keep a happy contented people in the country.

REVIEW OF WORK IN AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION
IN ONTARIO IN 1912.

PRESIDENT CREELMAN, O.A.C., GUELPH.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen:—

I am sure that I ought to feel at home in a gathering of this kind although it is the first time that I have had the pleasure of addressing your Convention during the Easter holiday. At the same time, as Prof. McCready has said, there are so many of my old boys and girls here that I feel we may be up in Massey Hall at Guelph. Those who have not had the opportunity of coming to Guelph for a shorter or longer time will excuse me for being particularly pleased when I see so many of my old personal friends here.

I am down on the programme this afternoon for a talk on Agriculture and Education, and I shall try to make my remarks apply inside the text at any rate, because there is only one thing that I feel myself permitted to speak upon at all at any time, and that is the subject of Agriculture and Agricultural Education. I have tried to confine myself to that in public addresses, believing that there is scope enough there and in the problems of agriculture as they come up.

Perhaps there never was a time in the history of the province when there was the same demand or the same need for instruction in agriculture as at the present time. Farming and farming operations have changed so materially within the last few years that the father cannot give the most up-to-date instruction to his own boy. The crops are so varied—corn, sugar beets, peaches, apples, onions, tobacco are coming to be counted staple crops of Ontario.

So many varieties of crops are grown that there is no reason why farmers' daily life must become monotonous. Owing to the superior intelligence of her people, Ontario has established herself as one of the best farming sections of the whole world. The field crops of Ontario will exceed in value all the field crops in the western part of Canada. As one goes through this province from county to county and township to township, he is forced to believe that "it is very good indeed." While our bank man-

agers often write about the bad times and poor crops in the west, they have never been disappointed in Ontario crops, and they never speak of what might happen if we had a failure here.

People from cities and towns should live in such places only until they could own and operate a farm. This situation, however, is reversed. Farmers' boys and girls are leaving for the towns and cities, and the farmers hope to remain on the farm only till they can retire to the neighboring town or city. They hope to sleep late in the morning and to go to sleep late at night. The farmer has as much right to retire after a life of hard work as anyone else. However, he does not know the difference between the life of the consumer and the life of the producer. Speaking of retired farmers, may I say candidly that he does not fit into his new conditions in town. His knowledge of the community and his leisure time are now all lost to the neighborhood in which he has done all his life-work and in which position he should be able to do a great deal of good. You teachers, no doubt, know how much clear-headed, conscientious, broad-minded help is needed among the school boards. You know what one man of the right sort could do in improving the appearance of the school and the schoolgrounds. You know what could be accomplished by him coming forward in the support of the teacher in the introduction of modern methods, and you know how he should stand as a strength in the community. If we could have just one retired farmer to step in the community with the desire to help the rural community, that one man could fire up the whole place and to the betterment and upbuilding of that section. Of course it is nobody's business whether that man retires into their town or city. I have no patience with the people who are remarking about the useless retired farmers keeping down taxes. Farmers have just as much right to retire as anybody else. The loss to the community in my opinion is greater than the gain to the town or city.

If the coming generation of farmers are to be kept on the farm we must start very early to influence the boy or the girl in the farm life. Mrs. Miller is going to talk on plays and playgrounds, I am not going to enlarge on that. I do not think that the farmer's boy does get enough play. He does not get that which youth demands everywhere. He does not get a systematic

opportunity of working off those animal spirits by feeding the cattle or milking the cows.

He must be taught also to co-operate with the neighbors' boys, that he may co-operate with the neighbor men later on. He must be instructed in the school in the first principles of scientific farming. The rural school boy must be encouraged to read as widely as he will. He must be taught to draw and to read and write, and encouraged to do everything systematically that in his older days on the farm he may be orderly in his work, thus shortening hours for his men and his teams. He must develop a readiness to change from one method to another on the best advice of the best farmers in the community. That's a very large curriculum which I have made out for the country boy. I believe that accuracy in drawing would lead to accuracy in hanging up the harness and in keeping it clean. Drawing leads to orderliness and orderliness leads to improvements in the farm home, the farm barns and the farm yard. This is very much needed on our farms.

The people are now asking for more help from the Agricultural College and the boy should be encouraged when you are through with him to come to the College. The Agricultural College has proven by experiment that farming certain fields in certain ways, and feeding certain classes of live cattle, that handling the orchard by certain methods and by using certain sprays, means absolute success in farming.

We have at the present time over 5,000 farmers conducting experiments and reporting, and over 200,000 that we reach indirectly. Some few years ago the heads of the Departments of Agriculture and Education met and sent out agricultural graduates to preach and practise the science of agriculture for the people. This is now doing very much good and we expect very good results to follow.

We find that one man can do much, teaching in the schools and helping farmers on the land. The science men of the high schools and the teachers in the common schools can teach this new agriculture.

It is with this object in view that we opened our doors to the teaching staff and it looks as if this has been a move in the right direction.

So much for the agricultural education end of it as we are trying to do it now.

We are appointing another half dozen men this year and in the next few years every county will be supplied with an assistant from the College who will be prepared to give his time for practical information and instruction to the farmers as they come in to talk with him.

I want to state further that Agricultural Colleges do not get a fair show in America. A man who studies medicine or law or any other profession comes back and is immediately put in the possession of an office, hangs out his shingle and gets so much "per" for each piece of advice he gives. The Agricultural College at Guelph would take the brother, give him the same length of a course at his expense; he goes back home again on to one hundred acres all alone, works twelve or fifteen hours a day, straightens up his fences, makes the place look more like a model farm; then goes to Farmers' Institute meetings or Farmers' Club meetings in the country in the evenings and does what the medical man or the lawyer is doing during the day and getting paid for. That is not fair.

Speaking of farmers' problems—there are as many in farming as in a business of any kind, but at the present the following problems seem to stand out: the killing of weeds and the planting of varieties of crops best suited to the farming conditions and the securing of better and more permanent hired farm help. These are being solved by the introduction of cheap telephones and the securing of electric power. Make the home and the farm life so attractive that the young people will not only be satisfied but will be anxious to invite all their friends out from the towns and cities.

The teachers and the inspectors can probably do more than anyone else. Speaking to the rural teacher, I believe that they must dominate and not domineer. I don't want to put myself in the position of trying to advise you, because you know more about your business than I do, but I am trying to put myself in the place of the small boy who may be trying to struggle along under you.

(1) I believe that the teacher must dominate. I think that sometimes our teachers are too modest in taking hold and running the school as best they can and as best they know. I often think that the children respect the teacher when she acts as though "This is my school and things are going my way." When

a subject is taken up you are not only going to teach that subject, but at nights you are not going to lay off if you have the strength that you may give them some story on the subject which will fix it in their minds more than the date which you and I have forgotten years ago.

(2) The greatest essential in the equipment of the rural school teacher is capacity for work, and next, willingness to exact what he or she plans.

(3) The rural school teacher who enjoys the co-operation of her trustees and ratepayers utilizes the most valuable assets for progress. I mean that "those who scoff will remain to pray" if you keep on.

(4) The resident teacher has a wonderful opportunity of retaining the best means of education.

(5) One of the essentials of the success of the building up of the rural school is faith in the possibilities of the community.

Take for instance the boy who comes off a good farm in a good agricultural section where a boy has not so much to say about his own clothes or his own education.

What can you do for that boy? Remember he is a man when we get him. You have had him first. Many a boy never gets to us at all because he has not the ready support of the public school, because he is a big fellow and does not go to school because of his size.

How can the College help in this work? We believe it can be done by placing ourselves and our equipment at your disposal.

In our College Calendar we say that any person, man, woman, boy or girl, may come to the College at any time for practical work and more or less instruction in any one or more departments. Our College is open all the year around and we have facilities to offer you which you cannot get anywhere else in this province.

A strong body and good nerves are essential for the lives of our boys and girls.

Make the class enjoy themselves in Nature Study. These are good for the body, for the soul and the nerve.

Play is essential.

School gardening is play if properly carried out.

Improvements in the school yards will soon lead to improvements in many farms in the neighborhood.

Time is precious, and if you are going through with the work with the idea of just getting the money, there will not be much success. There must be something else. You are going through because you believe that you can teach those things which you have not been taught. Can you teach something that you have not learned? There are poor people in your community, not poor in money, but poor in spirit, because farmers lead monotonous lives. In season and out of season they have not time in the evenings to read. However, I have no doubt that farmers will have a better time.

An educated person like a teacher never knows what influence he or she has in spending just one evening in a farm home, talking, telling them things that they do not know themselves, or may be leaving them a bulletin. If they ask you something you don't know tell them you can get the information for them, and you will be surprised what an influence you may have on the lives of these farmers.

We are just on the verge of a great awakening of the possibilities of life in the country. The school teacher and the school inspector have to take a lead in this new life.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

PASSED APRIL 14, 15 AND 16, 1914.

These Resolutions are for the consideration of the Honorable the Minister of Education, the members of his Department, and the teachers of the Province; and for discussion at Teachers' Institutes and in the Public Press.

Each teacher should select one of these resolutions and make a careful investigation regarding it, searching for information as to where this particular reform has been tried, or is being tried, and the results of this experience. The advantages that might be gained from its enactment, or the disadvantages that might be associated therewith, should be carefully tabulated and forwarded to the Secretary of the Public School Department of the O.E.A. These will be tabulated and laid before the Minister of Education and may appear in the public press.

RESOLUTIONS.

I. Expression of Appreciation.

1. That we again express our appreciation of the concessions granted to us and of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Honorable R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., the Minister of Education, his worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Seath, and the other officials of the Department of Education, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our Association.

II. The Public School Curriculum.

2. That the work in each of the forms of the Public Schools should be clearly defined; and that text-books should then be prepared, or selected, on the basis of the work as thus defined, not in the opposite order.

3. That the Report of the Committee on Supplementary Reading for each of the classes of our Public Schools be adopted, and the Committee be requested to continue its work and make a further report when it has sufficient material therefor.

III. *Public School Text Books.*

4. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization or revision of a text-book on any subject, he should give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those, who wish, may submit a book in typewritten form if necessary; and that Public School teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School text-books.

5. That three committees be appointed (1) to arrange the table of contents of each of the Second, Third, and Fourth readers into two well-graded groups of lessons suitable for the Junior and the Senior class in each book; (2) and to prepare an Index of the Titles of the Lessons; (3) an Index of the Authors; and (4) a Pronouncing Vocabulary of the Proper Names.

6. That we disapprove of the inclusion in our Readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English and too many selections that breathe, too much, the spirit of war.

7. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer may be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

8. That no map having any part misplaced, whether a wall-map or a map in a geography or an atlas, should be permitted to be used in any of the Public or High Schools.

9. That the Minister of Education be asked to place in our geographies a railway map of Ontario, a full-page map of Palestine, and also a map showing the name and position of places connected with the missionary journeys of St. Paul.

IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

10. That a *Provincial* Examination be held at the end of Form IV., Senior, of the Public School Course, and pupils who pass this examination shall be entitled to attend any High School, Collegiate Institute, or Continuation School in the Province.

11. That the papers be set on the following subjects of the course—Reading, Writing, Spelling, Arithmetic, Grammar, Composition, Literature and Geography; and that no marks shall be deducted for mistakes in spelling, except in the Spelling paper.

12. That the result of this examination be considered in connection with the Teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil

in each subject; and that the Executive of this Department be a committee to prepare and present to the Department of Education a feasible plan for carrying out this suggestion.

13. That the standard required for passing be 40 per cent. on each subject and 60 per cent. on the total.

14. That at least 40 per cent. of the marks in Literature be assigned on prescribed work; that at least 25 per cent. of the marks in Arithmetic be on mechanical work in the four simple rules; and that there be two papers in Arithmetic, (1) mechanical work, (2) practical problems.

15. That the names of the examiners appear on the examination papers as formerly.

16. That representative Public School Teachers doing Entrance work should be asked to prepare five or more type questions in each subject to be sent to the Central Board of Examiners as a guide—not that the questions shall necessarily be used in the papers.

17. That the papers should be marked only by teachers who are actually engaged in teaching Entrance work. In large cities the number of examiners could be proportionately increased.

18. That there be a local Board of Examiners for each inspectorate, to direct the work of the Examination. It shall be composed of representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work.

V. Teachers' Certificates.

19. That no certificate to teach, except as an assistant, be granted to any person under twenty-one years of age.

20. That, as we are of the opinion that there is only an occasional vacancy in the Public Schools of Ontario for which a legally-qualified teacher cannot be obtained, *providing an adequate salary is offered*, no permit to teach should be granted, except in *absolutely unavoidable cases*, such as are provided for in the forms which the Department of Education has prepared for this purpose.

21. That the matter of certificate should not be the only point to be considered in deciding what teachers shall be qualified to take the position of teacher or principal, of any Public School.

22. That we request the Minister of Education to make such changes in the present requirements of Public School Inspectors'

Certificates as will make it possible for Public School Teachers to qualify—the essential being *successful Public School experience and capability* rather than academic standing.

23. That the requirements for a Public School Inspector's certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a first-class Professional Certificate of qualification or a Degree in Arts granted by a recognized Canadian University;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in Public Schools, covering all grades of Public School work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled, and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a Degree in Pedagogy in any recognized Canadian University.

24. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the Public Schools of this Province, were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the Provincial University, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

VI. *The Advisory Council.*

25. That the number of Public School Representatives on the Advisory Council be increased from four to seven, and that the Province be divided into electoral districts, each of which shall elect one representative to the Council.

26. That members of the Advisory Council should have the power to introduce the discussion of educational questions.

VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

27. That where Manual Training and Domestic Science are introduced into a school, attendance at these classes shall be made compulsory.

28. That in the opinion of the Public School Department of the O.E.A. the present method of listing as "*the school population*" all persons of the ages 5-21 (inclusive) serves no good purpose, and has proved grossly misleading to ourselves and to our sister provinces; it should therefore be dropped and for these figures should be substituted the number of persons of the ages 6-16 (inclusive) and the number of children of compulsory attendance age, i.e., 8-14 (inclusive).

29. That the method of listing the actual number of pupils registered during the year, charging to the school as full year pupils, all entrance class pupils, all young pupils entered in April and September, all pupils admitted from other schools and all pupils removed to other schools during the year has proved very misleading; and the Department of Education should require instead the average monthly registration and the percentage of attendance based on the same.

30. That the Department of Education be requested to make the School Year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance, etc., made out accordingly.

31. That the regulation regarding Supplementary Reading for Form IV., Senior, be amended to be:—The careful reading, by each pupil, of *two* suitable books selected by the principal from a list of Supplementary Reading in English Literature issued by the Department of Education.

32. That grants should be distributed to urban schools, on a basis similar in principle to that now in operation, for the distribution of grants to rural schools.

33. That the regulation regarding the amount of Rural Teachers' Salaries on which the Government will pay 40 per cent. be changed from the present amount—\$350-\$600—to salaries from \$400-\$700.

34. That the purpose of Teachers' Institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods, but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

VIII. Superannuation of Teachers.

35. That the Government be asked to provide and support a system of superannuation for the teachers of the Province; that any teacher who has taught twelve years or more in the Province shall be allowed to become a contributor to the present Superannuation Scheme and come within the scope of its benefits by a present payment of the present worth of the annual payments covering his term of services; and that it shall be lawful for a School Board to make such payment for a teacher in its service.

IX. An Ontario Educational Gazette.

36. That we recommend to the consideration of the Honorable the Minister of Education the publication of an Educational Gazette, to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all Departmental regulations, instructions and reports, and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

X. General.

37. That this Association continues to urge very strongly its disapproval of (1) melodramatic and comic picture shows; (2) the manufacture and sale of cigarettes; (3) the comic supplements that are appearing in some of our Canadian papers.

XI. Contributions from the Institutes.

38. We thank the Local Institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this Department of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope each Institute will, this year, contribute to this fund. Some Institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in every Institute; begin now by sending \$5 or more to the Secretary of the P. S. Department of the O.E.A.

39. The work and aims of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association and of the Local Teachers' Institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each in its own sphere—the municipality, the county or the province—is endeavoring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and, by all legitimate means, to improve the conditions under which they labor; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central and the local associations.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE APPOINTED TO REQUEST A CURTAILMENT OF THE LOWER SCHOOL PROGRAMME.

BY J. D. DICKSON, PRESIDENT HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

There is no more important work that falls to the lot of a Minister of Education than that of outlining a course of studies for the youth of the country. The complete control of this work by the Minister carries with it the entire responsibility for its efficiency.

A curriculum should be flexible, logically arranged, conform to the requirements of a country and be within the capacity of the ordinary student.

In outlining a curriculum for Secondary Schools where a choice of subjects must necessarily be given, grave difficulties are sure to arise. Demands are made from time to time for greater prominence to be given to certain subjects and this can only be done, either at the expense of other subjects, or by overcrowding the curriculum. For years a series of overcrowding took place until the Lower School work became so burdensome that a reduction in the amount of work demanded became a necessity. This was the condition of affairs a year ago.

It would seem to have been easier for Sinbad the Sailor to get rid of the Old Man of the Sea than for the Department to get rid of a subject when once it had found a place on the curriculum. One seems to forget that the effective study of a subject may be carried on long after it has ceased to hold a place on the curriculum. For example, Reading, Writing and Spelling, subjects that are practised by every student every day, can, in my opinion, be learned most effectively at this stage, in an incidental way. In a certain measure, though not to the same extent, one might add to the above list Arithmetic, Grammar and parts of Geography.

The new curriculum has given a fair measure of relief from overcrowding, but even now the amount of work in History, Geography and Art is more than should, in fairness, be demanded.

Your Committee had no difficulty in reaching an agreement with regard to the recommendations for a curtailment of the Lower School programme which were submitted to the Superintendent of Education for his consideration, but the fact that all the Principals did not agree with these detracted greatly from their weight.

The recommendations of your Committee were introduced by the following preamble

“The Executive Committee of the High School Principals’ Section of the O. E. A., appointed to bring the request of the Section for a curtailment of the Lower School Programme before the Department of Education beg to submit to the Minister the following:

“The conditions at present existing in the Lower School compel students to take up such a multitude of subjects that it is impossible to secure satisfactory results. This condition has arisen from the introduction of new subjects and expansion, from time to time, of the requirements both in the old subjects and in those more recently introduced until the curriculum has assumed its present unwieldy proportions.

“We are persuaded that the multiplicity of subjects required bewilders the mind of the student and discourages him. The result is that the development of habits of thoroughness and concentration—the main object of education—is thereby defeated. We believe that these habits are more desirable than the superficial knowledge of a large number of subjects.

“It is our conviction that nothing but a material reduction in the amount of work required of the student will remedy the condition.”

The views above expressed were unanimously supported by the Principals’ Section of the O. E. A. at its last meeting, and have since been confirmed by correspondence with all the Principals of the Province.

While we fully appreciate the value of all the subjects at present on the course, we feel that it is absolutely necessary in the interest of the pupils to make this material reduction, and our recommendations are as follows:

1. Reading—Remove from the programme as a formal subject and retain it in connection with Literature.

It can be taught more economically, less tediously, and just as effectively in this way.

2. Spelling—Remove from the programme as a formal subject and test only in connection with the English papers.

It is a Public School subject, and can best be taught incidentally to pupils after they reach the High School age.

3. Writing—Remove from the programme of the studies, but retain the test at present applied in the Lower School Examination.

It is a Public School subject, and care on the part of the pupils in their daily work is the desideratum.

4. Book-Keeping—Remove from the Normal Entrance course. Retain business papers, to be taught in connection with Arithmetic.

The ordinary citizen requires no further knowledge of this subject than an acquaintance with common business papers.

The subjects may be properly retained in schools with Commercial courses and in other schools where Boards of Trustees require it.

5. Geography—Omit the review of Political, Commercial and Industrial Geography of the Public School course and confine the work to Physical Geography.

We should deplore the putting on of Geography as a Middle School examination subject.

6. Art—Reduce the amount by from one-third to one-half. Much more is demanded than the average student can accomplish.

7. Science—Reduce the Biology by about one-half and remove the stress laid on note-books. The note-book feature has been the most objectionable part of the Lower School Science; it has been made an end instead of a means. While a system of note-books is advisable in teaching this subject it is easy, as we have learned, to over-emphasize its value. Since there is now an examination in this subject it would seem reasonable that the pupils should not be burdened by undue insistence on the preparation of notes.

The Middle School Physics is too extensive. The work should be reduced materially. The subject of Sound might be dropped.

8. Grammar—Let the prescription be what is set forth in the first and last sentence of the present syllabus, namely:

The principles of Etymology and Syntax, including the logical structure of the sentence and inflection and classification of words.

An outline of the history of the development of the language. The fact that analysis and parsing is the important part of this

subject should not be obscured. Derivation may be omitted as it is learned in connection with the study of Latin. Lower School pupils are too immature to study the formation and representation of sounds to advantage.

9. History—Complete British and Canadian History in the Lower School. Or prescribe general outlines of British and Canadian History, with special care on the part of the examiner not to overstep the bounds in making the examination paper; in the Middle School a special study of two periods of English History; Oriental History eliminated; one examination paper in the Middle School.

The History of the Upper School also should be much reduced.

10. Tests in Arithmetic—The examinations should test the ability of the pupils to work ordinary commercial problems and ordinary problems in mensuration. Proofs of underlying principles should not be required till pupils are more mature.

AMERICAN AND CANADIAN SCHOOLS: A COMPARISON OF THEIR COURSES AND TIME TABLES.

BY A. W. MASSEY, B.A., PRINCIPAL OF ESSEX HIGH SCHOOL.

In the brief space at my disposal, I shall touch only briefly on the Courses of Studies, etc., of Canadian Schools. Owing to the little attention given to the views of the teachers themselves about educational problems, and the entire absence of a central Bureau of Education similar to the Bureau of Education of the United States (which keeps in touch with educational matters in every country of the world and supplies this information either free, or at a nominal price, to teachers and others interested in educational matters), there is little similarity between the systems of the several Provinces. I will deal with only two, one of the newer and one of the older.

ALBERTA.

In Alberta, the work is taken up in twelve grades, the first eight being taken in the Elementary Schools. Grade Eight is about equivalent to Form I. with us, except that no Language is started.

In Grade Nine, the Obligatory Subjects are: English, Canadian History, Political Geography, Writing, Algebra, Elementary Science, Drawing; Optional: Latin, French, German. Examinations are given in all except Writing, the papers in the optional subjects in this as well as in the next two grades being for those going for matriculation. In Grade Ten, the Obligatory Subjects are: English, British and General History, Physical Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Science, Drawing; Optional: Latin, Greek, French, German. Examination Subjects are the same.

In Grade Eleven, the Obligatory Subjects are: English, General History, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, Animal Life; Optional: Languages, Physics. Examination Subjects for Grade Eleven Diploma: Literature, Composition, History, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, Animal Life.

The Examination Subjects for Grade Twelve Diploma are: English Literature (two papers), Composition, English Language and History of Literature, General and English Constitutional

History, Trigonometry, either Chemistry or Physics and any two of: Algebra, Geometry, Latin, Greek, French, German.

Subjects for matriculation are the same as for Toronto, but the percentage required for both Teachers' and Matriculation Examinations is 50 on the total, and 34 in each, except that 40 is required in Composition. The papers are the same for the two examinations, and, except in the Languages, are set by the Inspectors. They are read by the teachers as here.

NOVA SCOTIA.

As in Alberta, the work is taken up in twelve grades, the last four being taken in High School. Grade Eight is about equivalent to Form I. with us.

In Grades Nine, Ten, Eleven, English and any other five subjects are required. For a Pass, 50 per cent on total and 30 per cent on each is required; for a teacher's Pass, 60 and 40 is required.

Subjects: Grade Nine—English, Latin, Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra, Drawing, Science. Grade Ten—English, Latin, Greek, French, German, History, Chemistry, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry. Grade Eleven—English, Latin, Greek, French, German, General History, Physics, Trigonometry, Algebra, Geometry. In Grade Twelve, nine out of fifteen papers must be taken. Obligatory:—English, two foreign languages, one mathematical and one scientific subject. Subjects offered are:—English (two papers), Latin (two papers), Greek, French, German, Algebra, Geometry, Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, Physics, Botany, Chemistry, Ancient History.

Drawing is taught in the first nine grades and Music in all the grades. Any subject deemed to be of importance in any community may be put on the programme of a school by the school board with the consent of the Education Department. Judging from the outline of work, they cover about the same work as we do in the various subjects. Where we have Analytical, they take Solid Geometry; History or Literature is required.

THE UNITED STATES.

Public Schools.—There is in nearly every State a uniform course of study for both Elementary and Secondary Schools. The

Public School course covers eight grades, each grade taking a year; the High School course is taken up in four grades.

In a great many places, the experiment of placing the two highest grades of the Public School in the High School is being tried and so far has been found to work well. By doing this, the students are able to start the languages two years earlier than they would otherwise have been able to do.

The subjects taken up in the schools and the courses of study in these are much the same as with us. In every course of study that I have examined, a great deal more stress is laid on English than with us, and in Grade Eight you will find prescribed "The Lady of the Lake," "The Merchant of Venice," and other works of equal difficulty. Mensuration is completed in Grade Eight as well as the whole of the Commercial Arithmetic. As is to be expected, the History of the particular State and of the whole United States is stressed, but a number of the States also stress English History. Much attention is paid to Civics and Hygiene.

Among the newer subjects, Nature Study, Agriculture, Music, Manual Training, and Domestic Economy are taking a prominent place. In most of the States all or the greater part of these subjects are compulsory.

The courses of study give in some cases the work that is to be covered each month. This is to help lessen the bad effects of a frequent change of teachers, or of scholars moving from one school to another during the term. It is also intended as a guide to an inexperienced teacher. Many of our Ontario teachers (both High and Public) would be very thankful for some such guide during their first few years of teaching. Another feature found in some courses of study, and which would also be of much assistance to a young teacher, is a daily programme or time-table. In many cases this showed where classes could be combined, thus reducing the total number of classes. The time-tables given are simply suggestive, but who of us would not be extremely thankful sometimes for a few suggestions in getting up our time-tables?

Anyone interested can secure a copy of the Course of Study for the Common Schools of Illinois by sending thirty cents to G. M. Parker, publisher, Taylorville, Illinois.

I might add that in New York State provision is made for taking up Algebra, Latin, French and German in Grades Seven

and Eight. All who intend to go to College are advised to start at least some of these.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

While there is no nation-wide system of education in the States, there are a number of factors that have tended to produce a very marked similarity, especially in the Secondary Schools. Three of these are: The College Entrance Examination Board, whose examinations are taken by students in every State; the National Educational Association and the Bureau of Education, Washington.

Possibly the greatest factor is the N.E.A. The teachers of the different branches meet and appoint Committees to bring in reports. These are fully discussed and adopted if thought best; if not they are sent back for further consideration by the Committee. The members of these Committees are selected from all parts of the States and represent both the Secondary Schools and the Universities. The different State Superintendents have, in most cases, had the good sense to adopt the recommendations of those who are really the best authorities on the subject. The teachers in the different departments also have had the good sense to recognize the fact that there are other subjects deserving of attention besides their own. At the present time, a number of large Committees are working on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and their report will be presented to the N.E.A. this summer.

From the reports of the Inspectors, who visited some of the American High Schools a year or so ago, you will no doubt be familiar with the subjects taken up and also with the length of time required to complete the Course. While the High School course is generally one of four years, in many places it is allowable for a bright pupil to get his work off in three years or for a dull one to take five. In practically all four-year High Schools, fifteen units are required for graduation. A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a Secondary School, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work. It takes the four-year High School course as a basis and assumes that the length of the school year is from 36 to 40 weeks, that a period is from 40 to 50 minutes in length, and that the subject is studied from

four to five times a week; but, under ordinary circumstances, a satisfactory year's work cannot be accomplished in less than one hundred and twenty 60-minute hours or their equivalent. Two hours of manual training or of laboratory work are generally assumed to be equivalent to one hour of class-room work. Subjects taken two or three times a week count half a unit.

In most of the States, the High School course of study is prescribed by the Government or by the State University, but, as with us, some latitude is left to the local authorities. In some High Schools the pupils are permitted to choose, with the consent of their parents and under the advice of their teachers, not only the general aim of their work but the separate courses of instruction that lead to that aim. In most schools, however, an attempt is made to provide for varying aims of study by organizing groups of studies, with descriptive titles, such as "The Classical Course," "The English Course," and so on. The State of Maine recognizes eight such courses, New York seven.

The amount of work covered in the different subjects varies very little in the different States. The outline given below is taken for the most part from the Course of Study for New York State.

THE SUBJECT MATTER.

Elementary Algebra—The length of time runs from a year to a year and a half and takes through surds and indices but does not touch quadratics.

Plane Geometry—This course takes in most schools one year and covers practically the same work as we take for Middle School Entrance.

Quadratics and Beyond—A half-year course dealing with quadratics, ratio and proportion, progressions, binomial theorem for positive exponents.

Solid Geometry—Much the same as in our old texts.

Trigonometry—Through solution of triangles using logarithms. In some States, spherical trigonometry is also taken.

Advanced Algebra.—A course taking one-half year and including the following topics: Permutations and combinations; complex numbers, with graphic representation of sums and differences; determinants of the second, third, and fourth orders,

including the use of minors and the solution of linear equations; numerical equations of higher degree, and so much of the theory of equations, with graphic methods, as is necessary for their treatment, including Descartes' rule of signs and Horner's method, but not Sturm's functions or multiple roots.

English.

Grammar.—The amount of time devoted to Grammar varies very much in different States. In Indiana, an hour a week for the first year is devoted to it; in New York it is taken through all four years.

Composition.—The amount of time spent on Composition also varies much. In some, it is taken twice a week for two years and once a week for the last two; in others, it is taken twice a week for three years. Effort is made to have all the High School teachers lay emphasis on the use of correct English.

Literature.—A number of selections are given for each year. From these about four are to be selected for class study. Lists are also given from which to select four books for Supplementary Reading each year. The large majority of the books are by English writers. Prose works are given about as much prominence as poetical; the students become familiar with the writings of more authors than with us.

Latin—First year, The Beginner's Book. Second year, four books of Caesar or the equivalent, and Latin Prose Composition. Third year, six orations of Cicero or its equivalent and Latin Prose Composition. Fourth year, six books of Virgil's Aeneid or its equivalent. Sight work consists of both prose and poetry.

Greek.—First year, The Beginner's Book and Anabasis begun. Second year, four books of Anabasis. Third year, books I, II, III of Iliad, Prose and Sight.

French.—First year, careful drill in pronunciation; rudiments of grammar; writing French from dictation; practice in reading aloud of French; the reading of from 100 to 175 pages of simple French. Second year, drill continued in pronunciation, Grammar, etc., and the reading of from 300 to 350 pages of modern French in the form of stories, plays, etc., it is preferable that the stories be not too long, and that different writers be represented. Third year, from 350 to 500 pages of ordinary difficulty to be read; Dictation, Conversation, and Grammar to be continued. Fourth year, the reading of from 500 to 800 pages of standard French.

classical and modern, only difficult passages being explained in class; the writing of numerous short themes in French; the writing of French under rapid dictation; a thorough study of French syntax. A number of the works given for reading in the third and fourth years are the same that are read in the third and fourth years in the University.

German.—The outline of work in German is much the same as in French. Spanish and Italian are given in some of the States, the course covering from two to four years.

History.—First year, Ancient History, with special reference to Greece and Rome and taking down to 814 A.D. Second year, European History down to the present time. Third year, English History. Fourth year, American History and Civil Government. The outline of work in History as given in the New York Curriculum is very complete, covering over 150 pages. A great deal of stress is placed on note-book work.

Physics.—The work covered is practically the same as is covered with us for entrance to Normal, Middle School. In connection with the examination in both Physics and Chemistry, the Student's Laboratory Note-Book must be presented together with a certificate from the teacher that the student has done at least 120 hours of work in the laboratory.

Chemistry.—The course is much the same as ours.

Botany.—The course is the same as for our Upper School and the books recommended are the ones that are in general use in Ontario.

Zoology.—What has been said with reference to Botany applies to Zoology; but in connection with it is also taken up Human Physiology.

Physical Geography.—A course somewhat similar to ours as far as the outline goes but laboratory work is required and a note-book must be submitted as in Physics and Chemistry.

Drawing.—Freehand, object, and perspective drawing are taken up, also colour and charcoal work; in a good many cases mechanical drawing is taken up very fully.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

STORY-TELLING.

BY MISS CARRIE NEWMAN, TORONTO.

A writer in the *Kindergarten Magazine* some years ago, in summing up the aim and object of Kindergarten songs, placed first on the list "To bring the sparkle to Johnny's eye and make little Mary's heart beat fast."

If we take this homely phrase as the test of our story-telling I think we will not go far astray either in our choice of stories or manner of presentation. If as we tell our story we see the light of joy, hope, expectation, springing into little eyes here and there, if little bodies are bent forward in the desire to catch every word, if as the climax is reached a subdued sigh of satisfaction escapes from little lips and a small voice here and there exclaims, "Teacher, I like that story," "That's a good story," may we not feel our story has been a success?

But in order to achieve this result the story must find something within the mind upon which it can fasten, the child must have had some experience which will enable him to grasp the situation presented. A story, such for instance as the beautiful symbolic stories of Mand Lindsay or Elizabeth Harrison, or one like Tiny Tim, taken from great literature, would fail to touch most of our children if told at the beginning of the term, and must be reserved until they have had several month's training in listening to stories.

What then should be our starting-point in telling stories in the Kindergarten? Must it not almost necessarily be the good old Mother Goose rhymes and the fairy tales belonging to the childhood of the race? If during the first few days of the school year we mention Jack and Jill, Little Jack Horner, or Old Mother Hubbard we will immediately meet with an eager response from at least a proportion of the children. "I know that story," "My mother knows that," "I have that in my book," will come from all parts of the circle, while waves of sympathy pass back and

forth. Are there any other names in literature which would call forth the same response?

The majority of the children already know something of these characters and are all eagerness to know more. But alas! in almost every group there will be some unresponsive little faces, some unfortunate children, and not always from poor homes either, who know nothing of rhymes or stories of any kind. So great, however, is the charm of Mother Goose that it will not be long before they will begin to respond. And, fellow Kindergarteners, is it not a privilege to bring these children into their proper heritage, to open the door and invite them into this garden of treasures? Does it not seem a pity that any child should grow up unacquainted with these characters?

A few years ago I came across a little six-year-old friend in the West in great trouble. His uncle had given him a beautiful edition of Mother Goose the previous Christmas, but the constant handling by a number of small brothers and sisters had loosened the back and it was falling to pieces. I carried the book home to mend, but in the stress of other duties forgot it, and was recalled by a very wistful voice inquiring a few weeks later, "When will my Mother Goose be ready. I'm so lonesome for it." Surely a book which can make a small boy lonesome by its absence has some deep meaning for childhood.

A year or so ago our Kindergarten door was thrown violently open one morning and an excited little boy ran in and demanded "Do you know Mother Hubbard? Do you know all about her? My mother knows part but I want to hear it all." We were obliged to plead ignorance of the whole story but promised to look it up. The first question next morning was, "Have you got Mother Hubbard?" A few days later found us with chairs drawn close together, lost to the world, as we revelled in the doings of Mother Hubbard and her wonderful dog. Surely the twenty-five cents required to obtain a complete edition of this old story with suitable illustrations was not wasted. Looking back into my own childhood I can place my finger on a red-letter day—the day I discovered Mother Goose. I must have been six or seven years of age, as I could read, but Mother Goose had played no great part in my life previous to that day when, being sent on an errand to the village drug-store, the druggist gave me a pamphlet to carry home to my mother. On my way home I opened this

little book and found scattered amongst the testimonials to Mother Seigel's Soothing Syrup and other home remedies Mother Goose rhymes. No one needed to tell me I had discovered a gold-mine, something my childish heart was hungry for, something which would mean much to me all my life.

Now when we seek for the cause of the universal popularity of Mother Goose we find it under several heads. First there is the form in which it is written, the rhyme or jingle so fascinating to children. Then the activity—there is always, something doing in Mother Goose, and usually, though not always, something of a humorous description. Another reason is, I think, the definite, clear-cut language in which the action is described. Think for a moment of the story of Jack and Jill, or of the cow that jumped over the moon—The whole story stands out clear and distinct without one unnecessary word.

Is there not a hint here for our later story-telling? Is there not sometimes a danger of the main incidents of the story being lost in a wealth of detail? You perhaps remember the story of the boy whose mother, at his request, was reading him a poem which she considered too difficult for him. She was therefore explaining freely as she read. At last she laid down the book saying, "I'm sure you can't understand it, Charlie, it's much too difficult for you." "Oh, yes, I can," was the eager reply, and then in a wistful, half-apologetic voice, "If only you wouldn't explain!"

The humorous character of much of Mother Goose is one of its chief charms and one worthy of our consideration. We have only to notice the character of the great majority of the advertisements of the moving picture theatres to see what a craving there is in human nature for humour. Unless mirth-producing pictures are plentifully supplied they may as well close their doors. Life for many in these days is a strenuous business, and a keen sense of humour is a saving grace.

I was interested a few weeks ago, and while having this paper in mind, to run across in the Public Library a small book by an English Inspector of schools in which a whole chapter was devoted to the cultivation of the sense of humour. He stated that there were schoolrooms in which a hearty laugh was almost unknown, and teachers who almost seemed to have forgotten how to laugh, or at any rate made little use of it in the schoolroom;

and he went on to show what a serious loss this was to the children, what a handicap it placed on their lives.

Of course this could not be said of Kindergartens, yet is there not sometimes a danger of our being too serious, especially in our story-telling? Is there not a great dearth of good humorous stories? Mother Goose will give us a starting-point in this line. And having laughed over the funny doings of Mother Hubbard's dog, of Simple Simon and other characters, the children will be ready to enjoy to the full such a story as that of little black Epaminondos and his Mammy.* Pure nonsense, but how it brightens up a dull day, how it oils the wheels of life. One special charm of this nonsense tale is the anticipation of the joke. After the first two or three incidents the child sees the joke coming and can scarcely wait for the words which express it.

But while humour plays a very important part in Mother Goose rhymes all are not humorous. In fact, every side of life is touched somewhere, and many of the deepest truths hinted at, and as Kindergartners we believe that all truth lies in germ in the child's soul waiting for the experiences of life to bring it to consciousness.

All the music that we hear,
Listening with the outward ear,
Would be powerless to move us
If there dwelt not deep within us
Its innate idea.

Think of that gem for the little child, "Mary's Little Lamb." A whole sermon, isn't there, in those last lines—love begets love, as a man sows so shall he reap, etc.? A little chap in my class never waits for the end when we repeat this rhyme, but invariably pipes up several lines ahead, with a deep look in his eyes, "Mary loved the lamb, didn't she?" In some editions I find a moral tacked on to this poem—surely an artistic blunder. The dullest child could hardly miss the point.

To seek for the hidden meaning of these rhymes and fairy-tales, the truth which makes them live generation after generation,

*This story was told.

is an intensely interesting thing for Kindergartners and parents, but we must surely be satisfied to plant the seed and leave it to mature hidden deep in the child's soul.

Let the children repeat with delight

"There was a crooked man," etc., though not for many years may they begin to ponder the truth that with a crooked mind all outward things will appear crooked, or as Froebel expresses it in that wonderful sentence, "Only the conviction that it is the darkness within which makes the darkness without, can restore the lost peace of our soul." Are you prepared to say that the repeating of the rhyme in childhood will not be one of the foundation-stones upon which a consciousness of the truth may be built?

While little eyes are sparkling and little hearts beating fast as the children follow the experiences of the old woman whose pig will not get over the stile and who seeks help here and there in vain until at last she touches the right button, that of a helpful deed, and sets in motion all the machinery which ends in accomplishing her purpose, is there not being born in their souls a vague realization of the unity of all life, of each thing being a link in a chain and all moving forward towards one great Divine purpose?

May we not transpose our Mother Play motto and make it read

"And the children learn to see
In a little rhyme like this,
That in true activity
Nothing unrelated is."

"Dimly at first but clearer by and by
He'll see how everything—earth, air and sky.
Plants, beasts and men are knit in one great whole
Interdependent, while the ages roll,
This lesson that the world spells out so slow
The child may come insensibly to know,
And with this lesson taught each opening life
Will come at last the end of man's long strife."

“ There was an old woman,
And what do you think?
She lived on nothing but victuals and drink,
Victuals and drink were her chief diet
And yet this old woman could never be quiet.”

No, victuals and drink, material things, can never satisfy an immortal soul, whether child or adult, and story-telling is surely one of the chief means by which the higher needs are fed and nourished in early life.

Should not our first aim be to make sure that the story we are about to tell does contain some universal truth, however crudely expressed, upon which the heart and soul can feed?

Even the nonsense tale of Epaminondas awakens a chord in life without which the individual will not be a completely rounded character.

FOLK-DANCES AND SINGING GAMES.

BY MRS. JEAN SOMERS, TORONTO.

During the last few years the Folk-Dance Movement has travelled fast and far. It has invaded our gymnasiums and is welcomed there as an attractive beneficial form of exercise. The play grounds rejoice in its presence. But best of all is what the child or person gets out of this form of exercise. I will endeavor to show or point out three very distinct benefits which should be the direct result of participation in the Folk-Dance, viz.: The physical, recreative, and educational value. It is scarcely necessary to say that all children love games, and when I say children I mean grown-up children as well. The grown-ups who have no love for games or do not possess any play-spirit have let their youth pass out and verily old age has set in.

Did you ever hear of a normal boy not liking to play ball? What is there about a ball that makes the toes of a boy yearn to give it a kick or his fingers tingle to get a throw at it? It is the activity within the boy that must come out and the ball is the magnet. So, while we may associate play and games with childhood, let us not forget to retail within ourselves the play-spirit, and there is no doubt in my mind that "joy of living" will be deeper and fuller. May I be pardoned if I introduce a little personal experience to prove my point. A short time ago I had the pleasure of taking dinner with a number of friends. Later on in the evening the much-discussed question of "Tango or not to Tango?" was brought up. Some of the guests were quite ignorant as to what the Tango really meant. I was asked for a practical demonstration. I endeavored to show them the difference between the one-step and the Tango proper, and when the irresistible "Too Much Mustard" was played everybody started to make some kind of movement. Now when I tell you that amongst the number was a learned judge, a serious-minded lawyer, a local preacher, you will realize what a charm music has. They were not dancing, some didn't know one step from another, but "everybody was doing it," and they were having the time of their lives. Thinking over this a few days later, I thought what a great thing

it was to be able to set aside perplexing questions and business worries and just feel young again.

Let us consider for a moment the meaning of the Folk Dance. To appreciate it fully we must understand the part that gesture has had to play in the development of the race. There is another language, besides that which is made up from the alphabet. This language is made up of imitative movements or gesture, and a story is told through the medium of pantomimic action. Many of these dances are dramas representing the common occurrences of daily life. The love-plays, the stories and characterizations of animals, the occupations of the people, and also their gay, joyful mood as they meet on the village green, are portrayed. We have in these dances remnants of war-dances. The common events of the day are subjects for many dances. The "occupation" dances can be traced back to when the people met on the village green. The shoemaker and the butcher and the cooper each as he dances expresses in pantomime some action or incident of his day's history. Remnants of many of the old dramas, myths and legends are found in the Singing Games. London Bridge is founded on an old tradition. A great many of the games were remnants of courtship and marriage customs, such as Little Sally Walters, Three Dukes a Riding.

Then there were games of imitation such as Washing Day, When I was a Schoolgirl. There were games of occupation—such as The Jolly Old Miller, the Shoemaker, Oats, Peas, Beans and Barley Grows.

The recreative value of these games and dances is so evident that it is scarcely necessary to spend any time in discussing this feature. I have selected a few games for demonstration and will endeavor as we proceed to point out their chief points of value and to show just where the educational and physical points may be found. Folk-dances have sprung naturally from the hearts of simple, wholesome country folk in response to the human need for self-expression. One must listen to the music with sympathy and imagination and then, with all consciousness of self laid aside, dance sincerely, spontaneously and joyously. One may be sure that the spirit of the dance has been caught if the dancers laugh for sheer joy. Before finishing, a passing word of how to teach these dances. Listen to the music, feel it, understand it.

express it thorough the movements and steps and then pass it on to the children. Dance with them, make the dance a real thing, and there will be no doubt about its success. In conclusion I might quote an old verse:

“Happy hearts and happy faces,
Happy play in grassy places,
That was how in ancient ages
Children grew and kings and sages.”

PICTURES IN THE SCHOOL ROOM.

SYNOPSIS OF ADDRESS BY G. A. REID, R.C.A.

The movement for School Art originated in England about 1883, led by Ruskin. Boston School Committee, working along same lines; first School Art League organized in Boston in 1892; Rosedale Ladies' League of School Art, first Canadian organization, founded in Toronto in 1896. This league, assisted by the Ontario Society of Artists, began a series of leagues in Toronto, with a Central League for general work. The Central League furnished plans and supervised renovation of Kindergarten room in the Rosedale School in 1898, and about the same time compiled a pamphlet which was published under the auspices of the Education Department, giving advice concerning school decoration and lists of reproductions of works of art suitable for school purposes.

Although the leagues are more or less inactive at the present, there is great interest and activity throughout Ontario in school decoration and picture study. This is being fostered by the Education Department, which has recently instituted a system of Art Education for the teachers, and besides offering assistance to Boards of Trustees for the purchase of pictures, has published a manual, giving advice and information about school decoration and picture study, and lists of reproductions of works of art.

The subject of drawing, the history of art and picture study are receiving more attention than heretofore, and promise to be made important in all grades from the Kindergarten to the university. The teachers are being prepared for the work, but none too rapidly to keep pace with the need. Publishers are vying with each other for growing trade.

Typical prints shown, give an idea of the great possibilities in colour work in reproducing the best examples of the art of the world at very low cost. Mechanical processes of reproductions explained, showing how necessary knowledge is in selecting prints for school purposes.

CHAIRMAN'S ADDRESS.

BY MISS LILLIAN B. HARDING, TORONTO.

Fellow Kindergartners and Friends:—In giving my address to you I have not sought to add to your store of information; that would be an act of folly. Rather my desire has been to endeavour to present an unbiased opinion of what the Kindergarten should aim to be to-day, and the vital relationship of our work to the grades. However inadequately my theme may be developed, however widely we may differ in opinions, I can still but hope that perchance somewhere I may be able to kindle a little inspirational fire.

Kindergarten has had a golden age in the past; that was well. It has a golden age ahead of it that will be better; but best of all must be for us to realize the splendid golden age that is now. Opportunities are being pressed in upon us demanding a larger vision of Kindergarten work, as it relates itself to the grades. Theoretical dogmas are giving place to the power of personality, as the strongest factor in vitalizing the human plant. We hear occasionally a suggestion of a missing link between the Kindergarten and the Primary room—why? Because Plato's idea of education, and Froebelian principles,—to give to the body and to the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable—have made Kindergarten stand out as the first illustrious link in an endless chain which it is now realized should stretch on and on in unbroken unity.

We have had perhaps too long what may have seemed like an over-contentment in our work. Exclusiveness bordering on isolation has given rise to the unfavourable criticism at times that we are a cult. Surely the broadening and deepening influence of our splendid idealism is not lost. If the criticism be true then our positive uplifts have proved our disadvantages, and henceforth our difficulties must be regarded as our valued opportunities.

Kindergartners may be divided into four classes: those who never see an opportunity to individualize,—they need inspiration; those who see the opportunity but do not embrace it,—they need ostracism; those who see the opportunity, seize it, and then,

disheartened, give up the climb up the mountain slope of endeavour—these are the deserters; and lastly, the saving element, those who see, seize, hold on to the opportunity in spite of criticism and constant discouragement—they are the victors to whom we owe the best that Kindergarten stands for to-day. Our profession will always be rich everywhere with unnoticed, unused opportunities. Find them, fellow-worker, and make your community feel the socializing influence of you and your Kindergarten, remembering always that doubt of self is destructive to growth, and underestimation of capability is more often the cause of failure than overvaluation.

Niagara was a reservoir of unused force for ages. The granite rock always held the ideal ore in its bosom. The marble but awaited the chisel of the sculptor to release the statue. Are we ready for a greater Kindergarten to-day, for richer endowments and larger opportunities, together with the increased responsibilities which go with them? If it still holds true that power grows with use, that the two talents well-accounted for will bring three or five, then for a certainty, when we as Kindergartners use to the full our present opportunities, that very use will of necessity commend the system as a whole to higher standards of excellence. Your sphere and mine may be comparatively small, but the place will stretch to fit us. Small talents can accomplish great things if the conscience work is constant and unremitting. Hamilton Wright Mabie says, "It is immoral to do clumsily that which we ought to do skilfully, to do carelessly that which ought to be done with consummate patience, to be satisfied with ugliness when beauty is within our reach." It is not lengthened years that count, but breadth of days. The worker must ever be more than the work. Let us then draw the circumference of our Kindergarten life with as wide a radius as possible, remembering that

"Those love truth best who to themselves are true.
And what they dare to dream of dare to do."

The tendency so prevalent at one time to regard Kindergarten as something too abnormally feminine, poetic and imaginative to be worthy of academic consideration has justly died out. We are no longer regarded as a sort of pedagogical white elephant, a

link tacked on a little out of the regular system of things. The Kindergarten river has gradually worn away the rock of prejudice, and has become a recognized rational means of educational navigation. Fortunately, this is not due to any tidal wave of feeling which sometimes takes possession of would-be enthusiasts, but rather the fundamental unit in reform has been, and must continue to be, actual contact of intelligence with Kindergarten work—that is, your work and mine; not half-a-day's work, but a twenty-four hour, seven-day, twelve-month process is the standard whereby Kindergarten must be judged. As the years pass on we must endeavour to realize more and more the largeness of Kindergarten philosophy, that it ever demands the highest and best culture and scholarship to make its excellence manifest. Art, science and literature cannot bring too much to bear on the great Kindergarten problem. We must broaden out all we can, for knowledge tempers and refines, broadens and deepens personality, gives power and efficiency to the work of a department where so much of the child's best development is brought about by unconscious absorption. There is no longer room for flimsy sentimentality in our morning talks about nature, nor is a peptonized substitute any longer allowable to pass in the name of good literature, while the meaningless gesture in our song has long since, we trust, been relegated to that special species in the animal kingdom whence it surely must have sprung. The educational theories of Froebel will never be understood unless they are illustrated in a rational corresponding practice. We cannot afford to lose our way while seeking the beatific vision. The time has come when even far Italy sounds a note of warning, and as practical psychologists we must rise up and save Kindergarten from its misguided friends.

Kindergarten, with an over-confidence, one thought, was so well established in the approval of an enlightened public, that her granite walls needed no defence, but like all other parts of a school system it must come in constant touch with the best and most progressive educational thought and investigation. We cannot afford to pass by any signboard without reading it, for it might lead to clearer vision. Test however, before adopting the new with the old reliable Kindergarten weight—the effectiveness of every method must lie in its spontaneity.

The old spirit of school government by arbitrary compulsion is almost broken down. The primary room idea, you must sit still, is fast dying out, and here too you will find love is the fulfilling law. The natural and healthful activity of manual training as the normal method of completed thought and helpful energies, is a part of every primary programme. Observation and elementary science lessons, bringing the child as Froebel taught close to nature through his sensory and motor activities, still remain a joy in grade work, while clay-modelling, drawing, weaving with looms, sewing, and constructive work surely demonstrate that the primary teacher has the Kindergarten revelation, and that with Colonel Parker she believes "the whole child goes to school." The occupation of progressive hand-work alone admits of such infinite variety that there is no need or wisdom in imitating either form or material used at the Kindergarten stage. Utilitarian products of hand-work can be easily and happily introduced to the Kindergarten-Primary child. Nature-study excursions, folk games and the story with its invaluable opportunity for self-estrangement are each and all so much a part of the good primary teacher's creed to-day that one would think the transition line should be almost imaginary. While the Kindergarten is the first artist with the plastic clay to form the model for later workers to continue the pattern and help mould into symmetry, co-operation with the first grade is invaluable; while of greater necessity still must be uniformity of environment with the home. The establishment of a mothers' club has proved the best means of creating a sympathetic interest and unity with the home, Kindergarten and Primary grade. The opportunity is afforded frequently for demonstrating the value and purpose of various phases of the work, showing how the simplest game has an object in view, how everything is done for a purpose and something must always be accomplished by doing the thing done. There is often great danger of our becoming slaves of fashion in education as well as in dress, for which reason we must not fail to individualize, and to give our useful, humane, and broadly healthful methods the value and dignity they really possess.

The utilitarian demand of the day may be good in its place. How to get the most in the shortest time sounds very practical and wise. It took, however, a Froebel to see how, starting too soon,

many a little weary intellect rolled itself up in self-defence and suffered patiently. Beware of the revolution of a wheel that might be able to trace mental stupidity as a result of being overtaught. Froebel's Kindergarten must halt before the problem of a practical materialism which is constantly presenting itself to-day. For while we may be realizing our ideals we may be de-idealizing many of them by our too-practical touch. Life demands of everyone the art of working under direction as well as the ability to lead and take the initiative. Kindergarten aims to strike the true balance—not licence, but liberty; not slavery, but ability to take suggestion and work it out under conditions of freedom and individuality. Every Kindergarten aims at the best method of suggestion, with the minimum amount of guidance, knowing that this alone can produce the maximum of originality.

If Kindergarten is to retain its power, it must possess always in part a something mysterious and hidden, commanding the reverence, without which we lose the power of interpretation, and the softening influence of true culture. Thus will Kindergarten continue to be the centre of joyous inspiration and life, the sun from which radiates the warming, loving, softening influences which shall unfold and foster all the good of the young life on which the whole future depends. The individuality of the child, and the personality of the teacher united by the bond of human sympathy—these, and these alone, can find the secret spring of character, and having found it, like Wordsworth's "Happy Warrior"—

"Who, not content that former worth stand fast,
Looks forward, persevering to the last,
From well to better, daily self-surpast."

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

THE FIRST CHAPTER IN TEACHER-TRAINING IN ONTARIO.

BY W. PAKENHAM.

Early in the eighteenth century every democratic state started out to put the common people to school. The task, abruptly assumed, created a big economic problem. In its attempt to solve this problem, each state set itself to evolve better methods of instruction, text-books, apparatus, schoolhouses, and, in particular, schoolmasters. Upper Canada, though remote, thinly-peopled, and poor, followed in the footsteps of other democratic states.

In her first attempt to train her teachers Upper Canada imitated the monitorial system of England. In England the monitorial system issued from the Bell-Lancaster movement and exhibited the characteristics of that movement—cheapness, incompleteness, denominational intolerance. The Canadian imitation was worse than the English original.

In 1815—our first Common School Act was passed in 1816—the legislature of Upper Canada incorporated the Midland District School Society. This Society was authorized to collect funds, establish a school at Kingston, and secure a teacher from England who would introduce the monitorial system of Lancaster. This school, in the words of the petition to the Legislature, would first “teach the children of the poor and then fit and prepare schoolmasters to carry the plan of instruction to villages and townships of the Province.” But the progress of the Society was slow. The Legislature would not subsidize it. A dispute as to the use of its funds developed into a war of factions. The preference of its Anglican supporters for the monitorial system of Bell stayed all action. The school at Kingston was not established until the early thirties. It did not live long, and it never trained teachers.

Another effort to introduce the monitorial system was made in 1820. In establishing non-denominational Common Schools in Upper Canada, the Acts of 1816 and 1820 disconcerted Dr. Strachan's plans for Church Schools or for Church control of

Common Schools. Strachan, a man of great energy and resource, immediately shifted ground and reappeared with new plans. Acting through Governor Maitland, he took possession of a disused Common School building in York in 1820, imported from London as headmaster one Joseph Spragg, an exponent of the monitorial system of Bell, and organized the notorious Central School of York. Following the example set by monitorial schools elsewhere, the Central School was to teach the children of the poor and at the same time train teachers for other similar schools to be established later in the urban centres of the Province. It was successful with its first task—the education of the poor. But its maintenance out of funds transferred from the university endowment without legislative authority and its strong Anglican bias exposed it to the bitter attacks of Strachan's enemies, crippled its influence, and prevented its expansion into a national system of schools. It persisted until the Legislature of 1844 cut off its source of revenue, but it did not affect the supply of trained teachers. With its failure all official efforts to introduce into Upper Canada the monitorial system of teacher-training practically ceased.

In her second attempt to organize a teacher-training system Upper Canada again imitated England.

The Report of the Duncombe Commission of 1836 recommended the creation of Model Schools for the training of teachers. The Report of the McCaul Committee of 1840 urged the organization in each township of a Model School whose instructors, preferably a man and his wife, should supervise the work of the itinerant or pupil-teachers in the other schools of the township. The idea of a Model School in which the apprentice-teachers of each municipality should learn how and what to teach persisted in the great Schools Acts of 1841, 1843, 1846. The crown offered liberal aid. The municipalities were required to double the crown grants. And hosts of boys, and especially girls, who wanted an education beyond the three R's and would not, or could not, seek it in the exclusive Grammar Schools, wished to attend. The Model School should have succeeded. But there must have been weakness in the organization of the School. Some municipalities may have been slow with their grants-in-aid. Many Common Schools with less pretentious equipment and staffs may have usurped the functions of Model Schools. Ryerson may have discovered in locally-created and controlled Model Schools a grave danger to his plans for a centrally-organized and administered school system. What-

ever the reason the Model Schools did not flourish. In 1847 there were only three in Upper Canada and the total attendance of the three, pupils and pupil-teachers, did not exceed 110. Before 1855 the Model School had disappeared from the school system, and, except where connected with the Normal School, the name from legislation—disappeared to reappear just as Ryerson closed his official career.

And thus the second attempt to create a teacher-training system failed.

But the need of the trained teacher persisted, and was never greater than in 1840. Then the School Section was a law unto itself. The trustees licensed the teacher. The teacher selected the subjects of study. Chance or necessity determined the textbooks and the methods of instruction.

The methods of instruction were bad. "A waterpail, a fire-poker, a few spellers, and a bundle of blue beeches were my school apparatus," writes an old teacher. There were very few maps or globes. Slates had just been introduced. Blackboards were so rare that in 1840 the Upper Canada Academy (now Victoria University) could boast of instruction with a blackboard as an attraction "unknown in this country and far superior to the usual way." Pupils were ungraded, or were graded, as the alphabet class, the primer class, and the Bible class; and the instruction was largely individual. The devices in class management of the Bell-Lancaster movement were slow in reaching the remote Common Schools of Upper Canada. Slower still were the achievements of the Rousseau-Pestalozzi movement—in the conduct of the recitation. There was no real instruction. Lessons were assigned, recitations were heard, explanations were suppressed—a round of exercises varied only by a meaningless and wasteful drill.

The courses of study were meagre. The teacher taught any subject he chanced to know and used any books he chanced to possess, or find in the School Section. Arithmetic, especially the arithmetic of the simple rules, bulked large among the subjects. To be skilled in "figgers," a good "arithmetiker" to wit, was to be the premier specialist of those days. Writing also was valued highly. To write a brave and dignified hand was to be educated. Time given to writing and making quill pens was time snatched from subjects among which the teacher's trend was uncertain and anxious. It was not uncommon then for pupils to practise writing for two hours daily. But the most important subject was

Spelling. In schools, pupils and teacher spelled by the hour. Outside school there were spelling matches, spelling bees, and spelling concerts. Spelling, in short, was the popular craze—the auction bridge or tango of our own day. Grammar was taught but always as a minor to the major, Spelling, while Geography and History, if taught, played incidental and isolated parts in the course of study.

Confusion reigned among the text-books. Murray, our first Superintendent of Education, reported concerning some Districts, that he found only “two or three old tattered fragments of books in their schools.” “In one class,” says Gourlay, “you will frequently see one child with Noah Webster’s spelling book in his hand and the next with Lindley Murray’s.” More than half a dozen spellers were in use here and there in the Province—if we accept the evidence of District Reports—and not fewer than ten arithmetics!

The trustees examined, certificated, and appointed the teacher. Their choice was not unrestricted. A District Report of 1839 declared that “the wages of the *working classes* are so high that few undertake the office of schoolmaster.” The McCaul Commission of 1840 recommended that the remuneration of the teacher be so increased “as to be equal at least to that of the day laborer.” Low ideals supplemented low salaries in restricting the supply of teachers. “No lickin’, no larnin’” pithily summed up the disciplinary processes of the typical school room. Physical robustness and a skill in “blue beech cramming” which withstood all efforts of pupils “to put the teacher out” were irresistible evidence of the teacher’s prowess. Low salaries and low ideals were in turn supplemented by conditions peculiar to the time. Great social prestige did not attach to the duties of the Common School teacher. The Philadelphia High School offered a course for pupils of “the lower sort” who intended to become teachers. The strenuous character of the teacher’s duties, together with the exclusiveness of the Grammar Schools, closed most teaching posts to women. Itinerant American teachers were numerous, but the law that forbade the licensing of other than British subjects obstructed, if it did not always prevent, their appointment to office.

Under these restrictions the Common School teachers of Upper Canada were a nondescript crowd. Only a minority were native Canadians. Some were Scotchmen. Many were Irishmen. A very great many were Americans. “When you enter a Common

School you find," said Dr. Rolph, "a herd of children instructed by some anti-British adventurer instilling into the young and tender minds sentiments hostile to the parent state." By occupation these teachers were often unsuccessful merchants or decayed gentlemen, retired soldiers, shoemakers, tailors, and farmers who taught and farmed at intervals. Dr. Sangster's teachers in the township of Whitechurch where a "rollicking old sailor, whose weakness consisted in a too great devotion to whiskey, profanity and tobacco, and Tom Kelly, a cobbler by trade and teacher by profession, who could half-sole a pair of boots while hearing a class read and whom the pupils often carried home and put to bed." In character these teachers were not always exemplars of "plain living and high thinking." The Legislative Assembly described them in 1831 as "transient persons and common idlers," whose examples were "vulgar, lowlived, vicious and intemperate." Mr. Crooks, grandfather of our first Minister of Education, classified them as "the worthless scum of not only this but of every other country." And our first Superintendent of Education, who surely knew us, ranked us in 1843 with bar-room divines and bar-room politicians and other disreputable members of society.

A highly-colored picture this—no doubt, too highly colored! But true enough to justify another attempt to organize a system of teacher-training.

In her third attempt to train her teachers, Upper Canada created her first Normal School. The idea of a Normal School or training college filtered slowly through from Prussia and England to the United States and Canada. Duncombe's Report of 1836 advocated four Normal Schools for Upper Canada, one to be for women. McCaul's Committee of 1840 urged the conversion of the Central School of Toronto into a training college and the ultimate organization of a Normal School. The Common School Act of 1843 proposed a Normal School for Upper Canada, and Sir Francis Hincks, the Act's sponsor, declared that the educational system of Upper Canada would never be complete without that Normal School. But the country awaited its great educational administrator. That administrator, Rev. Dr. Egerton Ryerson, took office late in 1844. His famous Report appeared early in 1846. This Report endorsed the demand for a Normal School, preferably such a Normal School as that of Dublin, which served a dual school system. Protestant and Roman Catholic, and

that of Albany, New York, which served a community, young, democratic, and American. Coming to final grips with the question, Ryerson's Common School Act of 1846 appropriated \$6,000 in behalf of the building and \$6,000 in behalf of the maintenance of a "Normal School, containing," as the clause ran, "one or more elementary model schools for the instruction and practice of teachers of Common Schools in the science of Education and art of teaching."

While still in Europe in 1845 Ryerson got leave of absence for his young clerk, John George Hodgins, to proceed to Dublin to study the administrative methods of the National Commissioners of Education in Ireland. Subsequently Ryerson instructed Hodgins to study, while there, the Irish method of training teachers in order that later he might assist in devising a Normal School for Upper Canada. He even went so far as to express the wish, or half-express the wish, that Hodgins become an instructor in the proposed Normal School, possibly the headmaster "for a time." The qualifications of such a headmaster, Ryerson defined with some care. First he must understand music. Then he must possess "skill in communicating ideas and in governing, together with an intimate knowledge of the subjects taught in schools." In this connection, Ryerson inquired whether or not John Rintoul, a Scotch assistant of Dr. Sullivan in the National Training School at Dublin, could be induced to accept the headmastership at Toronto. Hodgins, in reply, assured Ryerson that Rintoul would accept if the remuneration were attractive. As for himself—well, he was now studying music, practising teaching, and visiting many schools. But time passed and as Ryerson came nearer to action his sense of responsibility swept away all hesitation. He instructed Hodgins to come home at once to take his place in the Education Office where he was needed. And he offered the headmastership to Rintoul, the real expert.

The Board of Education, which was empowered under the Act of 1846 to organize and, through its executive officer, Ryerson, direct the Normal School, proceeded next to secure buildings. On the removal of the seat of government to Montreal the governor's residence on King St., Toronto, with its grounds and stables, had passed into the control of the city. The city had, at once, converted the grounds into public playfields and leased the stables as a playhouse—the Lyceum, to wit. The Board of Education now asked the crown, and, through the crown the city, for the

use of residence, grounds, and stables for Normal School purposes. The residence was immediately put at the disposal of the Board, but there was hesitation about the grounds and stables. The city wished to share the use of the grounds, but the Board stood firmly against a divided authority, and the City soon gave way. The delay with regard to the stables was more prolonged. The lease stood in the way and the Lyceum had its friends among the good people of primitive Toronto. But the pressing need of accommodation for the Model School prevailed, and, in September, 1847, about a year after it began to fit out the residence, the Board was in full possession of grounds and stables.

In the meantime the plans as to the headmastership miscarried. Rintoul accepted Ryerson's offer of \$1,400 per annum, which was twice his Dublin salary, and the National Commissioners of Education consented to his immediate release. But illness in Rintoul's home forced him to delay his departure for Canada through the autumn of 1846 and the winter and spring of 1847, despite the urgent requests of Ryerson for his early arrival in Toronto. A cessation of the illness in June permitted him to resign his Irish post, but a sudden renewal forced him finally to abandon all hope of crossing the Atlantic, and he resigned the Toronto post. In recognition of such a contingency the Board had already authorized the National Commissioners to select an alternative headmaster. They promptly selected Mr. Thomas Jaffray Robertson, B.A., chief inspector of National Schools, and Robertson sailed for Canada in July, 1847.

While awaiting Robertson's arrival, the Board completed the repairs, determined the date of opening (November 1, 1847), and appointed Mr. Henry Youle Hind, B.A., an educated Englishman, who was farming near Thornhill, Ont., lecturer in chemistry, mathematics, and natural philosophy for the first session of the Normal School.

The organization of the Normal School was Ryerson's first big task as Superintendent. He was naturally zealous. Surrounded by critics who were not too glad to see him succeed in his first work he was now anxious as well as zealous. In this spirit he rejected his pupil and friend Hodgins in favor of Rintoul, and he accepted Robertson because, like Rintoul, Robertson was an expert in the ways of the successful Irish system. In this spirit also he set out to find a student body for the new school. By notices in the press, circulars to school boards, and lectures

throughout the Districts, he called attention to the school and its purpose. With the authority of the Board of Education he invited each District Council to establish two or three competitive scholarships of about \$100 each for such of its teachers as wished to pursue a course in the school and would agree in return for the scholarship to teach for five years in the District concerned. These scholarships would go far towards providing free books, tuition, board and lodging. With the request for scholarships went the assurance that as soon as the maintenance appropriations permitted it, the Normal School would itself, like Normal Schools elsewhere, offer free courses. Many District Councils, it may be added, accepted the invitation, but there is no evidence that many students received scholarships. In the same spirit, moreover, he took a very large, an intimate, and a personal share in the management of the school. At times, indeed, his anxiety forced him to usurp the functions of headmaster and staff, and to direct the every-day activities of the class room.

Some of the regulations of the Normal School, as adopted by the Board of Education on Ryerson's recommendation, are interesting reading to-day.

No woman was admitted to the first session. Even Ryerson faltered in the matter of coeducation—at least, until he could provide a separate department for women. The entrant must be 16 years of age. They accepted the sixteen-year-old youth then! Our unruly age requires the eighteen-year-old. The character of the entrant must be unblemished, and the standardized testimonial attested that fact. He must be competent in reading, writing, and arithmetic, or say he was. If experienced in school practices he was all the more eligible. Indeed nine-tenths of the entrants were experienced teachers. Free books and tuition and an allowance of \$1 per week for board and lodging were offered such of the entrants as declared their intention to become teachers. Those who would not so declare received no allowances. Subsequent events show that all declared, but many did not teach. It was further provided, in deference to contemporary conditions no doubt, that any student might be dismissed from attendance at any time! We still talk that way.

Unlike the Normal Schools of other countries the Toronto Normal School started off without a residence. Such a luxury as a residence is not for teachers in this country! But the students were required to live in "approved lodging houses, not taverns"

and the staff were required to inspect these houses weekly and report their findings to Dr. Ryerson. No student should be abroad at night after nine o'clock. Toronto has become "the good" since 1847! On Sundays each student must attend his church regularly, and on Fridays from two to four o'clock he must take religious instruction from a clergyman of his own denomination. So decided the Rev. Dr. Ryerson and his colleagues, reverend and lay, of the Board of Education. Admission, dismissal, and attendance were matters within Ryerson's jurisdiction. Through him the Board of Education exercised a parental and personal authority over even the "lates" and "absences" in the Normal and Model Schools.

The Normal School also started off without a Model School. With some difficulty as we have seen, the Board of Education ultimately secured possession of the Lyceum theatre, and fitted it out as a Model School. It was formally opened in February, 1848, near the close of the first Normal School session, with 120 boys in attendance. Those boys came, twelve each, from the various school districts of the city and paid two-pence per week for tuition. Under the rules they must appear every day and at the prescribed hour, "neat and clean in dress and with hands and faces freshly washed." This was in 1848. Acting through the Board of Education, Ryerson selected as first headmaster of the Model School, Mr. Charles Lowey, an Irish teacher who was familiar with the methods of the Dublin training school and whom he had met casually at an educational conference at Picton. A Mr. Bell and two monitors were Lowey's assistants.

The Normal School opened November 1, 1847, with great éclat. (Ryerson was always skilful in staging his functions.) Four judges were present at the opening exercises, three "honourables," half a dozen district wardens, many clergy, and twenty students. It closed its first session, April 15, 1848, with fifty-two students in attendance. The closing exercises consisted not of final written examinations (in those days teachers' certificates were not issued by the Normal School), but of a public exhibition where Ryerson presided and many Upper Canada dignitaries were admiring spectators.

Robertson, the headmaster of the Normal School, lectured from nine to one o'clock, and from two to two-forty-five o'clock each week day, and from nine to ten-thirty each Saturday. In addition he spent one hour daily in the Model School—a total of

thirty-one-and-a-half hours of class work per week. We trainers of teachers come honestly by our long hours! Hind, who was a temporary instructor, lectured from two o'clock to four, and from six o'clock to eight each week day and from ten-thirty o'clock to twelve each Saturday. He also prepared his experiments, developed his garden plots, passed one hour daily in the Model School, and inspected the approved lodging houses. Another very busy teacher!

But let us look at the student. He sat in lectures from nine o'clock to one, from two o'clock to four, and from six o'clock to eight daily. In the intervals he spent three hours weekly in the Model School. And then look at the subjects.

Grammar stood first. Robertson revelled in it, gave it from five to eight hours weekly, bred it into our Ontario bone, as it were!

Agricultural Chemistry came next. Hind knew something about soils, fertilizers, and vegetables. Ryerson, who was politic even in 1847, was willing to establish garden plots. Governor Elgin was soon to offer prizes. Agricultural Chemistry was given almost five hours per week! Geometry and History (chiefly ancient) were given between two and three hours each week. Algebra and Logic about two hours each, and Trigonometry (the surveyor was abroad in the land then) about one-and-a-half hours.

As for Spelling, Derivation, and Composition,—they took their chances as miscellaneous subjects. There was mention of the Philosophy of Teaching, and no doubt there was some instruction in that subject. We know that Robertson sometimes intermitted the sparse Trigonometry lessons to introduce lessons in the methods of teaching the First Reader.

It is not known how much time was given to Music and Writing. Ryerson was not an expert in the processes of the school room, but it was characteristic of him that he insisted upon the introduction of Hullah's system of music and Mulhauser's system of penmanship, because, forsooth, he had seen them in Europe!

So runs the story of the first session. In the second and subsequent sessions troubles gathered thick and fast about the school. The governor returned soon to reside in Toronto, and drove the school into a disused temperance hall farther north in the city. The crown, unable to turn the stream of students, who sought in the Normal School the education that should have been given by the Grammar Schools and Universities, ultimately cancelled all allowances for books, board, and lodging. Trustees and

teachers of Common Schools protested against the diversion of the Common School funds of the crown to Normal School purposes. The creation of a new teaching caste or aristocracy aroused the resentment of hosts of teachers who could not, or would not, attend the Normal School. Moreover, Ryerson had been a vigorous politician before he entered office and political opponents pursued both him and his works into office. And then the Normal School was a new thing and came into being opposed by those who always fear the new. The Gore District Council, summing up this opposition in a memorial to Parliament, protested against the unprofitable activities of an institution "altogether unsuited to a country like Upper Canada where a young man of excellent character and of good education need only turn to the right hand or to the left to make his services much more agreeable and profitable to himself than in the drudgery of a Common School at a salary of \$116 per annum," and against the uselessness of all efforts "to provide qualified teachers by any other means than by securing as heretofore the services of those whose physical disabilities from age render this mode of obtaining a livelihood the only one suited to their decaying energies, or by employing such of the newly arrived emigrants as are qualified."

But the Normal School triumphed over all difficulties. From November 1, 1847, until to-day it has never lacked great teachers and earnest students and has never ceased to impress upon the schools of Ontario the nobility of faithful service. If you seek a monument to its work, look about you upon the highest and truest in the educational work of Ontario.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS—TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

BY F. A. JONES, B.A., OTTAWA.

It is not my intention to give a formal paper, instead I shall give briefly the results of a questionnaire submitted to the students of the Ottawa Normal School, and afterwards I shall mention some problems relative to teacher training work in the hope that helpful discussion may follow.

During the past few weeks I have been making a study of answers to a questionnaire covering various phases of student life and I purpose giving the results, not as conclusive evidence on any of the questions, but as interesting and suggestive material which cannot be gleaned from the ordinary reports. The answers of one hundred and fifty Normal School students have been tabulated, and the results of the investigation are as follows:—

1. *Were you born on a farm?*

63 students, i.e., 42%, said no.

87 students, i.e., 58%, said yes.

2. *How far from a village, town or city?*

57 students, i.e., 38%, were born 3 miles or more from a village, town or city.

23 students, i.e., 15%, were born 5 miles or more from a village, town or city.

3. *Were your parents (either or both) born on a farm?*

89 students, or 59%, had *both* parents born on a farm.

42 students, or 28%, had *one* parent born on a farm.

19 students, or 13%, had *neither* parent born on a farm.

4. *Were you born in a village, town or city? State which.*

30 students, or 20%, were born in a village.

31 students, or 21%, were born in a town.

9 students, or 6%, were born in a city.

80 students, or 53%, were not born in a city, town or village.

5. *At what age did you enter school?*

The average age was found to be 6.6 years. In the Ottawa Public Schools during 1913, 18.4% of all pupils were under 7 years of age.

6. *Did you attend a Public, Separate or Private School?*

124 students, or 83%, attended a Public School; 13 students, or 9%, attended a Separate School, while one student attended a Private School, and 12 students attended both Public and Private or Separate and Private.

7. *At what age did you pass the Entrance Examination?*

The average age was 12.9 years. The average age at which the Public School pupils of Ottawa passed last year was 14.4 years. Pupils of the Normal Model School, Ottawa, averaged 13.5 years. This would seem to show that the pupils who enter the teaching profession are well above the average in intelligence. For some time I have been convinced that our Normal Model Schools, if not all Public Schools, should be re-organized and arranged in six grades above the Kindergarten. The average age at which these students entered school was 6.6 years, and the average age at which they passed the Entrance was 12.9 years, hence the average length of time spent in the Public School was 6.3 years. I am inclined to believe that six years is long enough for the average pupil to spend in the Public School after passing from the Kindergarten, and that the Public School course should be arranged in six grades instead of eight.

8. *How long did you attend a Public or Separate School after passing the Entrance Examination?*

123 students, or 82%, did not attend at all.

27 students, or 18%, attended for 1.7 years on the average after passing the Entrance.

9. *Did you ever attend a Continuation School? How long?*

115 students, or 77%, never did.

35 students, or 23%, attended Continuation Schools, and the average length of time was 3.34 years.

10. *Where did you attend High School or Collegiate Institute?*

130 students, or 87%, attended a High School or Collegiate Institute.

20 students, or 13%, never attended either a High School or Collegiate.

41 High Schools or Collegiate Institutes were represented by these 130 students.

11. *How long did you attend High School or Collegiate?*

Average length of time was 4.13 years, while average length of time spent in school by students of Continuation Schools was 3.34 years.

12. *At what age did you decide to become a teacher?*

Several students said they "always" intended to become teachers, one said at 3 years of age, while the average was 14.5 years.

13. *What influenced you to make this decision?*

60 students, or 40%, said "Love for teaching."

15 students, or 10%, said "Love for children."

30 students, or 20%, said nothing influenced them.

45 students, or 30%, gave various answers, such as "I wanted to do good," "I was anxious to help my fellowmen," etc.

14. *Did any of your teachers urge you to spend your life in the country?*

146 students, or 98%, said they did not.

4 students, or 2%, said they did.

15. *Did any of your teachers influence you to leave country life for city life?*

145 students, or 97%, said "no."

5 students, or 3%, said "yes."

16. *Have you ever taught in a country school? How long?*

70 students, or 47%, said "no."

80 students, or 53%, said "yes," and the average length of time they had taught was 1.84 years.

17. *Have you ever taught in a village, town or city school? How long?*

122 students, or 82%, had not, while 28 students, or 18%, had had such experience.

18. *Did any of your teachers influence you to become a teacher?*

116 students, or 77%, said "no."

34 students, or 23%, said "yes."

19. *In which would you prefer to teach, a rural or an urban school?*

78 students, or 52%, preferred a rural school.

68 students, or 46%, preferred an urban school, while

4 students, or 2%, had no choice.

20. *State why you prefer one kind to the other.*

24 students thought the country offered better opportunities. 6 students preferred the country school because of the greater variety of work there. 31 students preferred rural school because of their love for the country. One student has since refused a good offer from a city board because he wished to accept a position in a country school. Various other answers were given in favour of the country such as: "I was brought up in the country, and therefore I feel that I am better suited for rural teaching," "I want to improve the conditions of rural life," and "I prefer the country because it is healthier." 20 students preferred the city because they have better classification of pupils. Some were brought up in the city and were consequently better acquainted with city conditions, others were anxious to have the social advantages of the city, while others were in favour of the city schools because of their better equipment. A few expressed their desire to begin teaching in a rural school and then to take up teaching in a city school after some experience had been gained.

21. *Do you know of any qualified students who would like to attend Normal School but cannot afford it?*

It was found that these 150 students knew of 34 such students. These with a similar number reported from the other Normal Schools would make a total of 238 students in the Province who

cannot afford to attend Normal—enough for another Normal School.

22. *Are they country or city students?*

18 students from the country, 3 from villages, 9 from towns, and 4 from cities.

23. *Did you ever teach on a permit? How long?*

108 students, or 72%, never did.

42 students, or 28%, had taught on a permit, and the average length of time was .8 of a year.

24. *Did you have to leave home to attend High School or Collegiate?*

68 students, or 46%, did not have to leave home.

82 students, or 54%, had to leave home.

25. *What characteristics of rural pupils would prompt you to advise them to spend their lives in the country?*

60 students, or 40%, said, "Love for agriculture." The answers to this question varied considerably, some of them were as follows:—

(1) If pupils were strong and healthy and fond of outdoor life. (2) If delicate. (3) If they had a love of freedom. (4) If they loved animals. (5) If they loved nature. (6) One student said, "If pupils were wild and lacking in moral character, I should advise them to remain in the country."

26. *What characteristics of rural pupils would prompt you to advise them to enter a profession?*

96 students, or 64%, said if they showed some special aptitude. Other answers were as follows:—(1) If strong and healthy. (2) If delicate. (3) If ambitious, studious and clever. (4) If independent and self-reliant. (5) If dissatisfied and disgusted with country life. (6) If they have a thirst for knowledge. (7) If they are not interested in farm life.

27. *When you were a pupil in a rural school did you have a male or female teacher?*

40 students, or 27%, had a female teacher.

5 students, or 3%, had a male teacher.

65 students, or 43%, had both male and female teachers.

40 students, or 27%, never attended a rural school.

28. *What has your Normal School course cost you?*

This question was asked of 44 grade A students who were writing on either final examinations at Easter and who had been in the Normal School for 29 weeks.

(1) Lowest cost was \$100.

(2) Highest cost was \$450.

(3) Average cost was \$228.41.

(4) Average cost per week, \$7.80.

(5) Average cost per day, \$1.12.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

THE INSPECTION OF A RURAL SCHOOL.

BY T. A. CRAIG, KEMPTVILLE.

This paper was partially prepared before I received a copy of our programme for the present meeting, and as I was not exactly sure of the part which I would be expected to take, my preliminary remarks are not as closely confined to my subject as they otherwise would have been. I may also explain that I was not aware that the Inspection of an Urban School would be introduced by Dr. Putnam.

In my study of how I could best introduce my subject, so that the discussion would be both interesting and profitable, I found that my work would be a third or fourth lecture on the general subject of Inspection of Schools as organized and conducted in our Province, and in confining myself to a particular phase of the work I found, further, that I must be continually assuming facts which would be considered at some length in previous addresses on the subject. However, I consoled myself with the thought that you were familiar with the work, and prepared to take up a discussion of it at any point, and that in considering a part of our work which is essentially professional, and for which we have no accepted guide or outline to follow, you are as well prepared to discuss it as I am, and that my present work would be to present the subject under a series of headings which would be suggestive, as well as give direction to subsequent discussion. With these preliminary remarks in view, I propose that we discuss the subject under the following headings, omitting 1 and 2, which I mention merely to clear the way.

I. The Inspector's Relation to (a) the Legislature; (b) the Appointing Body; (c) Trustee Boards, in the case of rural schools; (d) Society.

II. The Inspector's Duties (a) as an executive officer; (b) as a judicial official; (c) as supervisor of schools; (d) as a leader in educational thought and work in his Inspectorate.

III. How he determines the facts on which he bases his report.

IV. The character of his reports.

V. How he succeeds in securing due observance of his recommendations.

As already stated, we will omit I and II of these divisions and discuss III, IV, and V somewhat briefly and in as suggestive a way as possible.

III. How the Inspector determines the facts on which he bases his report.

1. What these facts are about:

- (a) The accommodations.
- (b) The equipment.
- (c) The teacher and his work.
- (d) The pupils and their work.

2. How these facts are determined:

- (a) By observation.
- (b) By examination of pupils, of register and other records, of time-table, by review tests and other examinations given by teacher.
- (c) Inquiry from teacher and from pupils.

The Accommodation.

In grading the accommodations we must follow the directions given in Instructions No. 12 and be guided by the standard of requirement outlined in Circular 33. In this connection I may point out that if a uniform standard of grading be maintained throughout the Inspectorate no section can claim to have earned more grant than is allowed through the grading. In determining the grade allowed, in each particular, I find that in many cases it would be one or two points higher if the teacher and the caretaker would give due attention to their respective duties, so far as these duties refer to school property. In cases where I have reduced the grading, and reported the cause, and loss to the section, I have generally found that improvement followed. If trustees are negligent, or penurious, and a further reduction in grading follows, I try to make the whole thing as public as possible. This can be done by discussing the grading with the teacher and pupils, and getting their opinion as to amount which should be allowed in particulars which are defective. A comparison with standard required by circular 33, when made by children, would certainly not be in the interest of the section and of course could not be adopted by the Inspector. They certainly hew to the line.

The Equipment.

Although the minimum equipment is fixed, no progressive school board will refuse to add articles which may be of special use in teaching, when recommended by the Inspector. I revise the equipment values every fall and report articles required to replace those worn out or destroyed. Where trustees object to providing certain equipment a demonstration of the use of the article is the best means of convincing them of its value in teaching. Meeting trustees, and informing them as to the use of articles of equipment, is generally an effective means of overcoming objections which have no ulterior motive behind them.

The Teacher and his Work.

In dealing with the teacher I shall use the headings given in our report form, and under each of these headings offer a series of sub-headings which will be suggestive, and which form a basis in estimating a teacher's efficiency.

I. Organization.

- (a) Classification.
- (b) Seating of pupils.
- (c) Arrangement of school furniture.
- (d) Programme of work for each day.
- (e) Distribution of time.

II. Management.

- (a) What provisions are made?
- (b) Are they carried out effectively?
- (c) Is there ready and willing obedience on the part of the pupils?
- (d) Is it disciplinary?
- (e) Is it effective in forming habits of regularity, order, taste, neatness, precision, etc.?

III. Government.

- (a) Is it made easy through the organization and management?
- (b) Does it develop respect for schoolroom regulations?
- (c) Are the foundation principles of citizenship and good government being fixed and observed?

TEACHING.

I. *Class Teaching.*

- (a) Does the presentation and development of the subject follow the laws of mental growth?
- (b) Is the mental activity which is aroused, sustained and constructive in character?
- (c) Is the teaching educative?

II. *Seat Teaching.*

- (a) Does the work assigned arise out of the lessons taught, or is it selected aimlessly or for the purpose of keeping the pupils occupied?
- (b) Is it suitable?
- (c) Does it call forth self-activity, self-effort?
- (d) Does it develop self-reliance, concentration of thought, continuity of effort?
- (e) Is it properly and effectively supervised? Is it educative?

Discipline.

- (a) Is the conduct and deportment of the pupils, as seen in the schoolroom, on the playground, or elsewhere, the product of outward restraint, or is it due to effort to work out in life principles taught?
- (b) Is there due regard for the moral sanctions which they possess, or is there a violation of these sanctions and disregard for all principles of moral conduct?
- (c) Are their thoughts about a subject related, logical, constructive?
- (d) Are their conversations, answers to questions, explanations, discussions constructive?
- (e) Does their reading, as reported by themselves, indicate mental discipline?

THE PUPIL.

Proficiency.

- I. Determined through examination—oral and written.
- II. Determined through exhibits of work.

It is, of course, impossible to determine the exact percentage standing of each pupil in the different subjects during a single

inspection. It is, however, possible to determine with a satisfactory degree of accuracy the standing in the different departments of study used in early mental training. For this purpose I group the subjects into (1) English, including history; (2) Mathematics; (3) Science, including geography; (4) Art.

Since a round of inspection extends over a period of six months, we can have no uniform standard of proficiency, that is, the standing of a class in January will differ very much from the standing of the same class in May; hence, in determining the proficiency of the classes, it is necessary to continually change our questions and our valuation of the work of the classes.

An examination of the exercise books, copy-books, drawing books and any record books kept by the pupils will usually prove a very fruitful means of determining their proficiency. I frequently find that the children's text-books and desks reveal important facts.

Progress.

- (a) Determined through register of attendance and other records kept by teacher.
- (b) Determined through comparison with pupils in average schools.
- (c) Determined by comparing age of pupil with age at which he should be for respective Form, thus—Form I—5 to 8; Form II—8 to 10; Form III—10 to 12; Form IV—12 to 14.

Deportment.

- I. Observed in the schoolroom, on the playground, on the street or wherever opportunity is offered.
- II. Is it free, natural, graceful, the product of training, etc.?
- III. Does it indicate culture and refinement of character?

Character of Report to Trustees.

I frequently fill out my report, either wholly or partially, in the schoolroom, and, in filling it, keep in view the welfare of the pupils. I try to incorporate in it as complete information as possible, and where necessary suggest means of improvement. Fault-finding criticism, unfavorable comparisons, trifling matters and remarks which level-headed men with a fair share of good

common-sense would resent, should be avoided. The report should impress trustee boards that public education in their community is their charge, and that the Inspector's report is for their guidance and help in carrying on their work. Indeed, they are depending on it for expert information regarding the essential part of their work, and should get this information clearly expressed and within their comprehension.

It is in the report of the teacher's work that there is likely to be misunderstanding and possible trouble. If, however, trustees are fully informed of the facts they are likely to follow the recommendations made in the report. In cases where friction may arise it is well to meet the trustees and discuss matters fully with them. I usually find that they will refuse to assume responsibility when they discover that it will be their burden.

How the Inspector secures due observance of his report and recommendations.

1. It is the duty of trustees to consider the Inspector's report soon after it is received.
2. It is the duty of the Inspector to withhold or delay payment of grants until grievances reported are removed.

When any matter requiring the attention of the trustees is reported to them and they neglect or refuse to take some action towards removing or improving it, the Inspector has no authority to issue his warrant for the payment of grants to the section until such time as the trustees comply with the law. As this comes into effect automatically it is well to draw the attention of the board to the clause in the Act bearing on the case. Before allowing the law to go into operation it is, however, advisable to again ask the board's attention, either by letter or personal interview, to the report. Since there are often valid reasons for boards failing to comply with the Inspector's recommendations it is advisable to recognize and respect these reasons.

I fear that I have already occupied too much of your time in introducing this subject and will drop it at this stage, in order that you may have an opportunity to discuss any points which I may have suggested, or to give us the benefit of any criticism or remarks you may deem advisable to offer.

THE DIFFERENTIATION OF RURAL AND URBAN SCHOOLS.

BY T. W. STANDING, B.A., BRANTFORD.

Hitherto rural schools have had the same course of study, the same class of teachers and the same examination tests as urban schools. Indeed, until recently, our courses of study were prescribed with the rural school mainly in view. For a long time, when our towns were few and small, the urban schools did not contain a very large proportion of the school population, and urban conditions were not far removed from those of rural districts; hence a common, school education was recognized as having the same meaning everywhere. But now our cities and towns are growing larger and more numerous and the conditions of life in them are becoming more purely urban. Rural conditions too, are changing fast under the influence of improved transportation, better postal and telephone facilities, and modern methods of production and distribution. One result of this growth is an increasing consciousness, on the part of both sections of our population, that the schools might be made to fit more satisfactorily into the life of the community than they have in the past. The purpose of this paper is to consider briefly the question thus raised, namely, whether or not two distinct types of public schools should not be recognized and developed, the one for towns and cities, the other adapted to rural life.

The answer to this question depends, first, on the aim to be kept in view in the education provided by our Public Schools. The Public School age ranges roughly from five or six to about fourteen. During this period children are properly occupied in extending their acquaintance with the world of nature and human activity in which they find themselves, and in developing their powers by exercising them in connection with these various interests. They have many fields of knowledge and experience to explore. Their interest does not yet focus itself upon any one group of facts; they must take a broad, general survey of all knowledge that comes within their view before they can choose the comparatively narrow circle of activities which is to become their vocation. Young people cannot as a rule be expected to make choice of a vocation before they reach the age of fourteen. They

have not had a wide enough experience of life to enable them to do so intelligently. Their school work up to this time ought to give them some general acquaintance with the world, its activities, its achievements, its conditions, and to some extent its problems, so that they may have an opportunity of finding the calling suited to their gifts or congenial to their tastes.

"It is a proposition almost universally accepted," says Ex-President Eliot of Harvard, "that children should study the elements of a considerable variety of subjects, not to obtain information on those subjects merely, but that they may sample several kinds of knowledge and initiate the mental processes and habits appropriate to each." "All education," he says, "comprehends two processes—the training of powers and the acquisition of knowledge. Childhood and youth is the time for acquiring new mental processes and functions. Adults well trained in youth can more easily acquire knowledge, but children are more susceptible to new interests, and hence the important thing in childhood is to train the child in as large a variety of mental processes as possible and to establish as many useful mental habits as possible." From these and other considerations it would seem that for urban and country children alike the Public School must aim at a general education—broad rather than deep—which will give pupils a wide and varied contact with life and its achievements in the past so that they can take with them into their later, narrower, vocational work fairly well-developed aptitudes of mind and body, and a sympathetic appreciation of the various human interests of their time. Whatever the home surroundings or the future occupation of the child may be, he needs such an elementary education; such an education, in fact, as our present course of study aims to provide for him. He should be trained to use the English language in speech and in writing with a fair degree of facility and force. He should acquire such ability and mental equipment as the work of arithmetic, geography, history, hygiene, art, manual training, etc., there prescribed, would give him. In brief, the aim of the elementary course of our Public Schools is not vocational, nor is it different for rural and urban children, but it is to give that general development of the physical, mental and moral life which is fundamental to the usefulness and success of every boy and every girl. "To live," says Rousseau, "is the vocation I would have a man's education train him to. At the

end of it he would not be either a magistrate, or a soldier, or a priest, or a lawyer. He would first of all be a man. Everything that a man needs to be he should be able to become as easily as anyone else." What Rousseau says of education in general we can safely affirm of at least the elementary education given in the Public School. Its aim is to train for life, not for any particular way of making a livelihood. That is important too, but it belongs to a later stage. If we consider, then, merely the aim of the education given in the Public School, we find no argument in favor of differentiation for urban and rural schools.

But the answer to our question depends, secondly, on the everyday interests and occupations of the community in which the school is situated; not because these indicate the vocation for which the pupils must be prepared, for they do not, but because they show the best means of approach to the pupil's mind. They reveal to some extent the organized mental experience into which all new ideas must be received and to which they must be assimilated. The home life and the occupations of the community furnish the fundamental experience which must be constantly appealed to as a basis of the child's interest and power of apprehension; and these are so different for rural and urban children as to demand a decided modification of the course of study, and probably also of the training of the teachers provided for the two classes of schools.

In this connection it may be said that Inspectors frequently have occasion to note the weakness of an otherwise capable teacher in all matters concerned with rural life, if that teacher has grown up in the city and has received her education entirely in urban schools. The country children are quick to note her ignorance of many matters that are of everyday experience with them; and not only does she suffer this probable loss of prestige, but she lacks that knowledge of the content of her pupils' minds that she needs constantly in her teaching. The country-trained teacher taking a city position is at a similar disadvantage, but to a less extent inasmuch as her secondary education generally brings her into touch with urban conditions, and she has a much richer store of experience and practical training than the city-trained teacher usually has.

An illustration of the former type occurs to me. During one of my visits to a rural school not long ago a teacher was giving what

was intended to be a nature study lesson. From what I heard I judged that it was a lesson on the porcupine, although some statements were curiously inconsistent with that assumption. On inquiring I found that the lesson was intended to be on the groundhog, but the teacher was depending for information on an article entitled "The Hedgehog" in an English work on natural history.

Nature Study and Manual Training, in particular, call for independent treatment in rural and urban schools. Agriculture and horticulture, both by means of home work and school gardens can be used in connection with rural schools as a centre of interest for nature study and elementary industrial training as they could not in urban schools. On the other hand, urban schools have facilities for shop-work and the visiting of factories that are not open to rural schools. Some subjects like writing, grammar, history, etc., would admit of exactly similar treatment in both types of school, but in others the modes of presentation should be quite different. The material used for practice in composition would vary considerably according to urban and rural interests, although in both cases facility in the use of good English would be the result aimed at. Arithmetic, too, to have its applications as closely in touch with real life as possible, should be taught in rural schools largely by means of different material from that used in urban schools. Indeed, publishers are already announcing text-books on this subject, written for rural schools.

In the third place, we must consider the essential difference in organization of the two classes of schools. Rural schools are almost as highly graded as are urban schools, and yet the teaching and supervision of all the grades must be accomplished by one teacher instead of seven or eight. A few years ago when a more detailed syllabus of work for the Public Schools was prepared by a committee from the Inspectors' and Public School Departments of this Association, some of us hesitated to adopt the complete subdivision of the work into eight grades and each grade in some cases into ten monthly stages, because we felt that it would be imposing a uniform course, drafted to suit urban conditions, upon rural schools, which, on account of their more complex organization, and more uncertain attendance, would find it unworkable. On the other hand, urban schools should be free to develop in accordance with their needs and opportunities without being

hampered by restrictions imposed by the needs of rural schools. One of the evils of our school organization at the present time is the system of promotion that forces clever pupils to dawdle for eight years over work that they might do in seven, or even in six, and that requires the slow pupil to take another whole year in one form when two months more would fit him for promotion. With a detailed urban school programme a better system of promotion could be devised. Rural schools with their more adjustable system of promotion—all the grades being under one teacher—suffer less from this evil than urban schools. The conditions now are even more adverse than they were to any attempt to prepare a uniform detailed programme of work for both classes of schools. The tendency to associate manual training and nature study in the rural school with gardening and elementary agriculture seems a perfectly natural and proper development, which may soon become a universal and valuable feature of rural school work. But the growing importance of this work in the rural school renders more difficult the task of preparing a detailed course of study for all Public Schools. And yet such a course, pretty fully and minutely prescribed, is urgently needed, particularly for the rural schools. The problem of teaching and managing a fully graded country school is difficult enough without imposing on the teacher, often young and inexperienced, the additional task of planning a course of study, or even of selecting from a richly suggestive course what is needed for her particular school. Hence, on the ground of their differences of organization, combined with the need of a different treatment of many of the school studies it would seem desirable and necessary that two distinct types of school should be developed, each with the same end in view, but one adapted to rural conditions and the organization of the one-teacher and the two-teacher school, the other suited to the conditions of the urban school.

It may be feared by some that a differentiation such as I have suggested may put difficulties in the way of country children who may wish to enter college or one of the professions, or even business life in the city. This would seem to be a needless fear inasmuch as the country school course would lead to proficiency in the subjects required for entrance to the High School just as surely as the urban school, although by a somewhat different route. The graduate of the rural school would have as high a

standing in the essential subjects as the graduate of the urban school, and would be likely to more than keep pace with the town pupil, as he generally does now.

The differentiation of rural and urban school courses would naturally imply a degree of difference in the training of teachers for the two classes of schools. As a rule, teachers who have always lived in towns or cities are at a great disadvantage in a rural school, and they would be more so in the case of differentiated schools. One might go a step further and suggest the advantage of grouping neighbouring towns into urban inspectorates and recognizing two classes of Inspectors corresponding to the two types of schools, although there might be a compensating disadvantage in the lack of close touch with the Municipal bodies concerned in the case of some of the town Inspectors.

The question of consolidation of rural schools has not been raised up to this point in this discussion. So far as the elementary grades are concerned, that is, up to the Senior Third, I am doubtful of the advantage of consolidation, except in those cases where two weak sections can be united into a strong one. In my district where the acreage is from 3,500 to 4,000 or more per section and the enrolled attendance averages 40 per teacher there would be no economy in consolidating. There would probably be a gain in average attendance and it might be easier to secure and retain teachers, but the expense would certainly be greater than it is now. Apart from this it would seem to me to be a movement towards carrying the children away from rural surroundings into semi-urban conditions. The school would be farther removed from the home than it is now not merely in distance but in spirit and surroundings. The intimate personal contact of teacher and pupils in their small classes, their close association on the playground and out of school, and the teacher's acquaintance with the parents, would be exchanged for the more formal relationship and general class teaching characteristic of urban schools. In short, that scheme of consolidation which aims at abolishing one-teacher schools and substituting for them a system of educational centres containing schools of from four to six or more teachers would be an attempt to increase the similarity between rural and urban conditions, so far as the elementary grades are concerned, and its advantage as a general policy for Ontario rural schools has not yet been fully demonstrated.

For the higher grades the case is different. Every inspectorate might well be organized into Continuation School districts, which should furnish secondary education adapted to rural conditions; and probably it would be found best to include in such schools all pupils from the Junior Fourth up. Nature Study, Manual Training and Domestic Science could be properly provided for, and the continuity of the course would tend to hold pupils for advanced work after their promotion from the Senior Fourth Grade.

To sum up, I have tried to show that it would be a mistake to attempt vocational training in our Public Schools either for trades in the city or for agriculture in the country; but that it would improve the efficiency of both rural and urban schools if they were developed along distinct lines—with modified courses of study, with specially trained teachers for each type, and possibly with two classes of Inspectors; and further that a system of consolidated rural schools should be encouraged, not for the junior pupils, but for pupils of the Fourth and higher forms.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

MEDICAL INSPECTION AS IT APPLIES TO RURAL SCHOOLS.

By J. B. H. McCLINTON, M.D., ELMVALE, ONT.

The importance of free public school education for the children of all classes and races in every country of the civilized world is now a well recognized and accepted fact. About twenty per cent. or one-fifth of the entire population is of school age (if not actually enrolled in the public schools). Immense sums of money are required to equip and maintain these schools. In the United States alone over \$400,000,000 is expended annually for this purpose and the fact that the greater part of this vast sum is raised by a self imposed tax, cheerfully voted and paid by the people, is ample evidence that they fully realize the vital importance of the proper education of their children and will heartily appreciate anything further that may be done in that direction.

As early as 1833 thoughtful legislators in France, recognizing the importance of caring for the health and comfort of their school children, ordered medical inspection and a general oversight.

From this small beginning, Medical Inspection has grown to its present status. For forty years little was accomplished. In 1874 Belgium and almost immediately afterwards Germany, Switzerland, Hungary, Austria, Norway, Sweden, Russia, England, North and South America and Japan recognizing the value of medical inspection of schools undertook to establish those systems which they deemed would best suit their requirements and satisfy their people. Often, like Solon's law for the Athenians, not the best they could make, but the best the people could keep or would appreciate. At the present time England, Japan, and Switzerland have national systems, Massachusetts a state system and British Columbia, a provincial system of Public

School Medical Inspection. Practically every city and important town in Canada and the United States has some system in operation.

So far as the general principles are concerned, the cause needs no defence.

In cities and large towns results are answering all objections and fast removing all prejudice. In rural districts very little has yet been done. The need perhaps has not been so keenly felt. Rural conditions are quite unlike those prevailing in our larger centres of congested population. In the country we have practically no poor, an abundance of good food, fresh air, pure water and some children. Also sufficient housing accommodation for double our population.

The fact that children are all too few makes them doubly precious and all the more deserving of our best attention. Too much, however, should not be attempted at once. Experience teaches that we must creep before we walk. Obviously the most necessary and important part of the work must be first taken up and dealt with in a way that will impress the parents most favorably and least excite that prejudice and opposition which often delays the successful operation of the most valuable scientific knowledge. The opposition to vaccination as a protective against small pox, and to serum injection as a preventative and cure for diphtheria is well known.

Hence in order to get the best results for the children we must in some measure secure the sympathy and co-operation of the Department of Education, the P. S. Inspector, the Teacher, the Medical Inspector, the Trustees, the parents and the children.

From the Department we might ask that the importance of school hygiene in all its bearings, and some knowledge of first aid, be more deeply impressed upon the teachers in training. The subject might also be taken up with profit at the summer sessions. Furthermore for the sake of uniformity and economy it would be well for the Department to supply blank form record books, report cards, etc., on application to any rural school in the province, and further that a small grant (say \$3.00 to \$5.00) be given to each school where one or more satisfactory Medical Examinations of pupils has been made and recorded during the year.

Of the Public School Inspector we might ask that during each official visit he will refer to the great importance of good health, inquire as to the medical inspection of the pupils, commend the same to teachers and pupils as well as in his report to the trustees. Where a medical examination has been made and recorded these records should be examined and inquiry made as to whether the suggested treatment had been carried out. Where this had not been done he might urge both the parents and children to act upon the advice of the Medical Inspector, impressing upon them the vital importance of prompt treatment.

The teacher we would ask to thoroughly familiarize himself with such text books on hygiene as are from time to time authorized by the Minister of Education, so that in his weekly talks to the pupils he combine accurate knowledge with his personality and the influence of the living voice. That in all cases where any symptoms are noticed, or even suspected, of communicable disease, the child be sent home and directed through the parents to the family physician or M.H.O. who will diagnose and order either return to school or treatment as the case may require, and that obvious defects which admit of treatment be brought to the notice of the parents.

The central figure, the new feature, the chief factor is without doubt the Medical Inspector. Who shall he be? By whom employed? How paid and what duties shall be required of him? Each of these questions must be met and answered before medical inspection of rural schools can be successfully operated.

Always the best doctor possible or available should be chosen for this work. The M.H.O. has jurisdiction in all cases of communicable diseases, water supply and any unsanitary conditions which might affect either the school or the general public. His experience in such matters and enforced attendance at annual conventions of M.H.O.'s should eminently qualify him for this position. Again, his appointment would prevent such overlapping of duties and jurisdiction as would inevitably result should these positions be held by different physicians. On these grounds, therefore, it would seem to be highly desirable in rural districts where their duties would overlap and are usually very light, that the M.H.O. should be made Medical Inspector of schools. Failing in this, the appointment should be given to any other duly

qualified physician having the approval of the Department.

By whom should he be appointed? Certainly not by virtue of his office as M.H.O., nor by the municipal council, but by the School Board with such remuneration as will pay him for faithful and earnest service. Voluntary service rendered by local physicians has never been nor is it ever likely to be either lasting or satisfactory. As to his duties, uniformity and efficiency would be best secured by the preparation and publication of a small Manual or Guide book for Medical Inspectors. This Guide book as well as Record book and Report cards with suggestions to parents could best be prepared by a committee appointed by the Department, consisting of, say, two rural trustees, two P. S. Inspectors two M.H.O.'s, having for their chairman such a man as Mr. Cowley who has both an intimate and first hand knowledge of rural school conditions and requirements and who has shown a practical initiative as evidenced by the success of our Continuation Schools.

Speaking generally, it would be the duty of the Medical Inspector to make one or more visits during the year, give a short and tactful address on the object of his visit and upon the far reaching importance of good health, make a personal examination of each child, especially recording the condition of the skin, eyes, ears, teeth, tonsils, the presence of adenoids and any orthopedic defect or abnormal mental condition. To send report cards to parents or guardians where treatment is necessary, to examine and report upon the sanitary condition of schoolhouse, outbuildings, and water supply.

From the trustees we would ask that a Medical Examiner, preferable the M.H.O. for reasons already referred to, be appointed and be paid a reasonable amount for each inspection. And we would ask them to use all their influence to create and maintain a sympathetic interest among teachers, parents and children in this important but neglected branch of education.

The parents we would ask to believe that all this is being done in the interests of the children they love, and to have any defects or diseases pointed out to them promptly treated by their family physician, dentist, or specialist. If, through lack of means they are not in a position to secure the necessary treatment that they immediately apply to the head of the municipality, whose duty it is to provide for treatment in such cases.

The children we would ask to believe that all this is being done not only for their present comfort, but also for their future success and well-being. We would ask them to take a pride in the care of their bodies in sound clean teeth and skin, and above all to avoid vicious habits, tobacco and every form of intemperance.

No mention is made of the school nurse. It is true that in the cities her services may be even more important than those of the physician, but in the country where the homes are far apart, and where the majority of the population is made up of that great independent middle class, the need for a trained nurse does not appear to be very pressing at the present time.

Later, when the Medical Inspection of all school children shall have been made compulsory by Provincial Legislation and shall have found favor with our people, no doubt a very useful sphere will be open to the School Nurse.

In conclusion, gentlemen, let us consider some of the benefits that may be reasonably expected to result from such care of our school children. A campaign of practical education will be carried on which will benefit not only this, but the coming generations also. Our greatest national asset will be developed and more fully enabled to discharge the duties of citizenship which they must later assume. Lives, time and money will be saved. Lives by removing the causes of fatal diseases. Time by placing the child in that state of health and comfort in which an education can be acquired in ten years which under less favorable conditions would have required at least twelve or fourteen years. Money would be saved because it costs less to educate a strong, healthy child for ten years than a delicate one for twelve or fourteen.

Where the mentality of a child is considered, even when bodily defects are not present, many a bright child will, by special promotion, be saved from loss of time and enforced idleness, while the dull and backward child will receive kind treatment, special help and consideration, instead of demoralizing corporal punishment and cruel taunts for failing to do the work and get the results which their natural mentality makes absolutely impossible.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

REV. JAMES BUCHANAN, ELMVALE, ONT.

To the Members of the Trustees' Department of the Ontario Educational Association:

I had the privilege of presenting the address of the Vice-President when I occupied that office last year. This year the Presidential honor carries with it the responsibility of the President's address.

To discharge the duty creditably to the Association is no easy task, when we consider the humble place the Trustees occupy, both in the O.E.A. and in the educational work of Ontario.

If our Department could carve out and occupy a larger place in the educational structure, future Presidents could, with greater ease, and mayhap also with much more success and benefit, prepare and present the annual address.

The Scholar.—In educational work, the scholar should and must occupy the foremost place.

The school is made for the scholar and not for the teacher, the ratepayer, the trustee or the Educational Department of the Government.

The business of all these is to take the raw material—the scholar—and make of them citizens with the loftiest ideals, with the noblest purposes, with the greatest self-mastery—and therefore with such power and ability as will fit them for that place which each child passing from adolescence to maturity feels he is called upon to occupy in the body politic.

Education is not complete when it adequately stores the scholar's mind with knowledge. It must teach him how to use his knowledge, to pass it on to others, that the sum total may result in his own betterment, and through his uplift, add to the store of public prosperity, happiness and peace.

Every educational system should conserve the health, manners and morals of the scholar. The culture of body, mind and spirit is no mean work. It demands service of the most exacting and sacrificial kind, and where rendered in the true spirit must result in the production of the best kind of citizens, and thus yield to those engaged in the service the highest and most abiding satisfaction.

The Trustee.—Trustees can well serve the state by providing schools, with sufficient air space for the healthy development of each child—with the most modern system of heating and ventilation, with adequate sanitary accommodation—and having such architectural beauty and adornment, within and without, as will be living teachers of grace and beauty, kept steadily before the scholars' eyes, during the many days and years they must perforce find an educational home in the school.

Medicæ inspection, attention and nursing have become necessary, because of the neglect of proper health requirements. A better system would prevent disease, would disseminate the knowledge of the laws of hygiene and health, and children thus taught would in after years be better qualified as parents to practice in their own homes and with their own children, the knowledge gained in their own school days.

"Manners," says Emerson, "are the happy ways of doing things, each one a stroke of genius, or of love—now repeated and hardened into usage."

Manners and morals should be taught together. The mind filled with the contents of knowledge may give ability and power, but no one is truly educated who cannot control his actions, and specially those in relation to his fellows. Much that passes for manners, called "social etiquette," is simply the caste system, and is therefore more honored in the breach than in the observance.

Trustees might well consider the deportment of their scholars, and lend their influence to secure a realization of the most becoming conduct, both in and out of school, and thus elevate the character of those for whom ratepayers elected them trustees.

If my conception is right, the trust committed to the trustees is not simply the management of money, the purchase of supplies, the payment and engaging of teachers and kindred necessary work. The trust is the children, and the responsibility of the trustee is the charge of these children, so as to make of them clean, moral, educated men and women, well fitted and qualified to become the citizens of a powerful, progressive state, and the parents of a strong virile race.

The Teacher.—The work of the teacher is one of a very responsible character. To the teacher is delegated the work of preparing for life's service the future citizens and parents of our land.

There should be an intimate relationship existing between trustees and teachers. Both should recognize the responsibility of the trust committed to their care. Both should work harmoniously to the end in view, the production of good mannered, well educated, highly moral young people, who during their training have been fully imbued with a deep sense of the great service they are called to render to the state and for which much expenditure in money, thought and love has been made.

The character of the teacher is of great importance. No teacher can succeed in imparting to children what he has not realized in his own life. How can a boor teach manners? How can a sot teach morals? How can an ignoramus teach knowledge?

If the teacher is "a quitter," because of his financial ambitions for an advance in salary, he should leave his profession. If he is ready to sacrifice his school for a "raise" at Christmas or Easter, he gives ample proof of his unfitness for his calling, and his certificate should be cancelled. But if, with much unselfishness he gives proof of determination to realise results in the finished product*of his work, the trustees and the state should see to it that such unselfish devotion to ideals does not go unrewarded. An unasked advance in salary, is a good proof of appreciation by trustees, and a satisfaction to a teacher, showing that his work is valued, and should make him more unselfish and more resolved to do his best work.

A well-devised plan of superannuation is a great aid in satisfying the natural ambition of the teacher. No provision for old age will often cause otherwise well satisfied teachers to seek higher emoluments and even to leave the profession. Whereas, some assurance of an adequate pension, partly provided by themselves and partly by the state, to be paid upon retirement at a stated age will give stability to the profession, retain men in the ranks, enable them to give undivided attention to their work and foster an ambition to do such work for the state as will amply repay the expenditure.

The O.E.A. and the Trustees' Department.

In the proposed Constitution for the O.E.A. provision is made for four departments. These are: 1. Elementary. 2. Secondary and College. 3. Supervising and Training. 4. Trustees.

I would recommend that some effort be made to make the Trustee Department more effective and more representative of the trustees of the province and thus give the trustees more influence in the O.E.A. and with the Department of Education.

The trustees are called upon to provide much of the money for educational work, and therefore should have a more vital influence in the work.

The work of the Supervising Department is not always appreciated, because not well understood.

It is sometimes necessary for the inspector to bring pressure to bear upon unwilling trustees, who feel that a "Boss" is sent to compel them to a course which they do not appreciate and which means, mostly, furnishing more money for salaries or equipment that the inspector "orders" and the trustees are unwilling to provide.

The large body of trustees are men of vision who, when shown the need, willingly respond to every requirement of the inspector, and thus bear their fair share of our educational cost.

If a larger number of trustees could be induced to attend our annual meetings, to take an interest in our discussions, to help solve our problems and thus learn the meaning of provincial education, I am sure the inspector would be esteemed as a co-worker and helper, and mutually working together the feeling of pressure would cease and of help and profit take its place.

This department is not sufficiently represented on the advisory council. Considering the importance of the trustee body, the Government might well see its way to give us more adequate representation.

The O.E.A. practically furnishes the members of the advisory council, and our department is passed over with two representatives. Surely it is not too much to ask that this department send one high school trustee, one continuation school trustee, one public school (urban) trustee, one rural school trustee, and two representatives chosen from the general body of trustees to the advisory council.

Grants are made to teachers institutes. Would it not be well to ask the Department of Education to make similar grants to trustees, to enable them to form and hold district or county associations for the discussion of school problems.

It seems to me that the wisdom of the Education Department would be more appreciated and better understood, and perhaps superior wisdom provided, if the whole body of trustees could meet from time to time and turn the searchlight of their information and interest on a work that is far too much directed and controlled by one or two men at the head of affairs.

Educational Problems.

The many educational problems waiting for solution in our province if discussed would make your Presidential address far too lengthy, even if we made a passing reference to them only.

Two problems, however, demand attention and should be kept before our trustees. These are: The City Problem and the Rural Problem. In some respects these cannot be separated. If a proper balance is not maintained between them, we can only create more complex problems.

Canada is largely an agricultural country. But she has her heart set on becoming an industrial country. By the word "Industrial" we have practically eliminated our greatest industry, that of farming, which principally is the occupation of our rural communities.

The tendency to differentiate between "city" and "rural" or "country" has made great problems, which we would be wise to attempt to solve.

The influx of rural folks to the cities is a problem creating two problems: First, it depopulates the country. Second, it compels the city to make provision for the increased population. And these two in turn create many more intricate problems.

In seeking a solution for these problems, the Dominion Government appointed a Royal Commission "to enquire into the needs and present equipment of the Dominion of Canada, respecting industrial training and technical education."

The report of the Commission has recently been issued, and it presents proposals for the development of "industrial training and technical education" of practically every class in the nation.

The basis of all study the report says is general education, that is, reading, writing, drawing and arithmetic, with experience gained by association with others in work, in play and in social intercourse.

This kind of work, it says, is being fairly well done in Canada at present, but suggestions are made for its improvement, extension, enlargement and enrichment. In doing this the Commission declares that provision should be made for:—

1. Training of the senses and muscles.
2. More and better drawing.
3. More physical culture.
4. Nature study and experimental science.
5. Pre-vocational work.
6. More and better singing.
7. Organised and supervised play and games.

The Commissioners have evidently laid down principles that if constructively and patiently carried out in detail would enable Canada to become a nation of fully vocationalized experts, able to meet every national and individual, industrial and technical requirement.

Manual training is equally adapted to the work of both city and country. Ability to draw, design and make plans must quicken every human wit—the mind, the eye, the hand.

Physical culture is a natural necessity, the lack of which often provides work for the doctor and tends to impoverish the home and state.

The farmer who can revel in and understand

Bird and butterfly and flower

And fish in stream and bird in bower,

may well be trusted to study climate, soil, rotation of crops and character of seeds.

The boy taught to understand the nature of the material he works with should become a better craftsman. Preliminary apprenticeship preparation is necessary to him who takes up any vocation and both city and rural schools should be required to do some of the kind of preparatory manual work.

A singing people will be a contented people, will be, nay are, a contented and thrifty people.

At the root of good singing lies love of country. A truly contented people will be rooted to the land that rewards the fruit of their toil, and when that reward is in some degree commensurate with their labor, they will become a thankful people and their singing will be eminently religious, as with thankful hearts they sing and make melody in their hearts to God.

That play and games are necessary to youth for physical, mental and moral reasons, all people of understanding will agree. With proper encouragement, children will learn to organize their own games. Still a skilled teacher should adapt games and plays to the ages of the children who are engaged in them, not omitting to consider their physical capabilities. Mr. Jeremiah Longface may object to using the ratepayers' money for such a worldly purpose as organizing the social instincts of the pupils. But when he discovers the great benefits conferred, he may come to support the system, because through play and games the children become better able to undergo the physical exercise of the class room, because of a healthier body, mind, heart and character.

So far we can travel with the Royal Commissioners. Nay, we may with better understanding take the entire journey, and we may, as we pass through city, town, village and rural community, be able to scatter favors on every class and condition of our people.

But we must confess, we fear a line of cleavage between the populous wealthy city and the sparsely populated, poor rural community.

Many of our Ontario cities have adopted industrial training and technical education as a part of the curriculum of higher education. The boards of trustees of these cities will welcome the light and leading of the Royal Commissioners' Report. They are well able to pay for instructors in industrial and manual arts. Nay, more, the very industrial life of the city is dependent upon the culture of the mind, the eye and the hand of workers, and when the physical health also is benefited by the superior culture obtained, we can depend upon the cities to adopt the best and to secure all the advantages to be had through industrial training and technical education.

The city problem, so far as the industrial arts is concerned, is well on the way to solution.

The Rural Problem.—When we come to consider the rural problem, it is so complex that we find a difficulty in stating what the problem really is.

Let me try to untangle the ravelled skein.

Many of our leaders in every walk of life have been bred and educated in the country. But to finish their education they had

to hie themselves to the city and, of course, they were lost to the rural district.

The university, the collegiate, the normal, the agricultural college are all in the city. The high school is in the county town, and lately in the large rural village. How many high schools have we in the purely rural districts?

The fact is, that everything men consider worth having are in the city or the large county town. High wages, short working hours, social centres, amusements, sports, the attractiveness of the crowd, household advantages and many other things have no place in rural districts.

Beyond these, the men who get the cream off the farmer's milk are in the cities; and it is felt that the city man expects the farmer in the country to be happy on the skim milk.

When the city man lectures the farmer on the necessity of increased production to reduce the cost of living in the city, he forgets that the farmer thinks that an incident of the reduction will be reduced financial rewards to him.

These and other things kindred make the rural school problem, and they are **THE** rural problem.

The rural problem briefly stated is:

Rural depopulation.

Lack of social opportunities.

Difficulty in sustaining church and school.

Inability to attract labor, because of greater rewards and easier conditions in the city. That is competition.

An undertone of feeling that discriminates against the rural district, is the persistent policy of Governments, Politicians, Manufacturers, Financiers, Common Carriers, Middlemen, Educationists and others who it is felt are "on the back" of the rural district, and without whose support the whole social fabric would necessarily crumble.

The farmer reads the daily papers, and the general impression he receives is that a great co-operative city body invites him to raise a steer which the city body eats and pays for by returning to the farmer the head, horns, hide and tail as his reward for raising the animal.

What is the rural school problem? First of all, it arises out of the wider rural problem. It is as I conceive it—

The distances children must travel to school.

Blocked roads, through severe weather conditions.

Children perforce kept at home part of the time.

Parents must keep the children at home to do chores, to pick potatoes. Labor scarce, cannot pay high wages.

Poor school buildings.

Badly equipped schools.

Underpaid teachers.

Too often, permit teachers.

Inadequate Government and county grants.

No rural high schools, or very few.

Children must leave home to secure higher education.

No attention paid in rural schools to rural pursuits.

The feeling that the public school, to bright scholars, is the highway from the farm to the city, where happiness dwells.

Trustees whose seeming sole business with the school is to keep down expense and starve education for cheapness.

And the ratepayer wills to have it so in too many cases.

That there is little bitterness over this problem in the rural district, is at once a proof of the inadequacy of the education and of the fine moral fibre of the people, who patiently bear, hoping against hope for better things to come.

What is the solution of this problem? In my judgment, first, a divine discontent that rises in rebellion against conditions and that demands better treatment, adequate to the position held by our rural citizens, upon whose labors our very existence depends.

Second, until conditions change, more adequate grants from the Government and county to rural schools.

Let the people be encouraged to realize that at the basis of their economic success lies education. To the end that the very best education be secured, encourage the people to pay qualified teachers as high salaries as can be had in cities, and of course to the limit of their ability. Where sections cannot pay adequate salaries, let the Government and county augment up to an equality with the best, that the rural school may be taught by the best obtainable teacher.

Have teachers' houses as a part of the school plant so that male teachers may be able to make homes in the country, and thus become centres of culture and influence and by their presence raise the intellectual status of the whole rural community.

A thousand dollar salary with free house and garden is not too much to pay for a married teacher who in time would become guide, philosopher and friend to the whole district.

Besides a salary, teachers should be recognized as public servants, expected to serve the educational requirements of the whole district, expected to make rural life the work of their teaching years, and allowed to retire at sixty-five with an adequate pension, partly provided by his own annual payments and partly by Government funds.

It has been proven that a man will be satisfied with a smaller sphere of labor and a less salary, if he is satisfied that his old age will be provided for, and many men are coming to see that other things being equal the rural district is the ideal place to live and raise a family.

Third, the preacher and the teacher in the rural districts should both be required to take a course in agriculture, such as would enable them intelligently to advise with their people in the various parts of husbandry. It would be well if at least one preacher in a district could be elected a school trustee.

The teacher of course would require to have such knowledge as would enable him to teach the youth the elements of the art of farming, especially with regard to the science of the subject and so when the youth started out to work he would have some knowledge of soil and seed, the animal and his anatomy and other elementary studies.

The preacher and teacher might well form themselves into a committee to form a social centre either in the school or church basement, and thus cater to social instincts of the community through literary, debating, religious and social week night gatherings. When the Protestant Church of Canada is formed this ideal will be easily possible.

Fourth, consolidated schools.

Under the same roof, all the scholars of a large district could be taught by an adequate teaching staff.

The kindergarten, primary, public, continuation, rural high school and agricultural school could all very well be conducted in the consolidated school.

There are many advantages in such a school. Children could find at home education suited to their every requirement, training by teachers who, like themselves, are rural residents and such

educational training, too, as will encourage them to make the rural district their permanent home.

The discipline of such a school is of incalculable benefit. With one girl teacher over a whole school of different grades, the marvel is that so much work can be done. Often the dull child makes little progress. Parents think their own crow is white and blame the teacher for the failure, and use their influence for the teacher's removal. A change of teacher does not overcome dullness that requires expert care and knowledge. Only an expert can help such children, and the girl, no matter how anxious she is to do well and secure success, has not and should not be expected to have the ability to make scholars out of all the raw material found in a rural district.

The question of regularity of attendance would, in some measure be solved by the need of providing conveyances to take the scholars to and from the school, and the further benefit of conserving every pound of physical energy for the real work of education, that is too often dissipated by the long walks children must take to cover the necessary distance between the home and the school.

Where children meet their kind in large numbers, without regard to social distinction, in the conveyance, on the playground, where supervised games and plays are not only possible, but become a necessity, the larger social atmosphere would react upon the social instincts of the young people, create a new sense of relationship and responsibility, which in turn would react upon every home whose parents and older folks would come to look upon the school as a purveyor of friendship, of social intercourse and blessing to the whole neighborhood. It would also become a social centre for the recreational activities of the younger people and older folk, too.

But suppose that the need of little hands to pick potatoes or do other chores becomes so evident that it cripples the school. What then?

One hesitates to advocate compulsory education in the face of a spoiling crop and financial loss.

But the children are the state's best crop. Their ignorance means future and continuous financial loss, not to name the other

losses, intellectual and moral, and the hurt to the community from low ideals of ignorant folks.

Uneducated children reflect discredit on their parents, are a persistent injury to themselves, and of decreased value to the state. No state can support ignorance.

If it comes to be a choice between the crops, the wise will choose the children. Kind, thoughtful parents will not take long to realize that the harvest from educated offspring is worth all the cost, and that they have a duty and responsibility towards the school, to see that its work must not suffer through the needless absence of the children from the school.

In Scotland the half time system has long been in vogue. In Ontario the part time system might be adopted to permit children to remain at home to help with the chores two days out of five, and thus allow these children to come to the entrance examinations a year or two later in life.

At the best this is a compromise in favor of poor, or it may be, selfish parents. Its chief feature is that it handicaps the child to help the parent. Not many children will persist in securing an education when it means double time to secure it, with the hindrance of physical energy used up in work that rightly belongs to education.

Compulsory education, under the conditions that exist in Rural Ontario, may seem to be a hardship to some. But if we are to solve our problems in the reorganization some persons must feel friction through the change and like affliction it may seem to be grievous, nevertheless afterward it works out an exceeding personal advantage.

I thank the Trustees' Department for the confidence reposed in me in electing me to occupy the highest office in their gift, and I humbly hope that the year over which I have presided will be helpful in solving some of the many problems of education in Ontario, which is the chief reason for our existence as a Department of the Ontario Educational Association.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

The Manse, Elmvale, Ont.

THE EDUCATIONAL PROBLEM IN GROWING TOWNS AND CITIES.

BY DR. J. F. HONSBERGER, CHAIRMAN BERLIN BOARD OF
EDUCATION.

The rapid growth of our country brings with it momentous problems to be solved. This is true of the country as a whole, but more particularly true of growing towns and cities.

There is the problem of the proper distribution of our immigrants, the problem of labor, and the unemployed, the problem of race and religion, health and sanitation, and lastly, but by no means least, the problem of education.

In our Western Provinces the prairie of to-day is the city of to-morrow and while this may not apply to our Eastern cities, the growth of most of our towns and cities has been most phenomenal and far exceeding our expectations.

What, then, are the educational problems with which we have to contend?

First, there is the problem of space and accommodation. Playgrounds quite sufficient for a village with a two or four-roomed school are required to accommodate a much larger number of pupils; lands lying adjacent to the school have become occupied by expensive buildings, or have become valuable on account of their central location in the city.

Expropriation and arbitration have given little relief; the prices being almost prohibitive and beyond the reach of the Board of Education.

The plain duty of every Board of Trustees in any growing city or town would appear to be to foresee these circumstances and long ere they are required, purchase vacant sites of good proportions, in suitable locations, in the outlying parts of the city.

The policy adopted by many German cities has been to secure more land than is actually required for school purposes and to dispose of the surplus when it has become valuable and apply the proceeds toward the building fund of new schools. In this way they have been greatly assisted in building up their splendid educational system.

Additional school room is also required and too often it has been found that the buildings are ill adapted for any enlargement, and structures devoid of beauty, comfort or economy become, owing to the want of foresight of former Trustees, almost a necessity.

Any Board, therefore, which makes provision for the present only, and has no thought for the future growth of the city, fails in its duty to the educational interests of that city.

These are not, however, the greatest problems we have to face. Owing to the influx of a foreign population, ignorant of all sanitary laws, compelled by the scarcity of housing accommodation, and consequent high rents, to seek homes in quarters quite unfit for habitation, where ordinary cleanliness and sanitation are unknown, our schools become sources of contagion for many communicable diseases, and it is a fact well known to every urban School Board that the work of our schools is greatly retarded by the constant presence of contagious disease, for not only those actually ill, but many others either under quarantine or on account of fear of disease, absent themselves from school.

In my opinion, there is but one remedy for these conditions and that remedy is "*Medical Inspection of Our Schools.*"

Thorough inspection by a competent physician, assisted by district nurses, backed up by an efficient Board of Health, would, I believe, rid our cities of these undesirable housing conditions, stamp out disease, greatly lessen mortality and leave the way clear for better instruction in our schools.

On visiting many of our cities, even the smaller cities, and walking through their leading thoroughfares, one cannot help but notice that a large proportion of the inhabitants speak in a foreign tongue.

Many of these are without education, others are educated in their own language, but all are ignorant of the English language. Their children come to our schools. Instruction must of necessity be tedious. A single child or two in a room soon learns to adapt itself to its surroundings, but when numbers are added the difficulty is increased.

The kindergarten is a great aid in this work. Through the medium of exercises and play, the young child more readily learns our language, and when the higher classes are reached it has little difficulty in acquiring an education.

What can be done for those who are beyond school age? Night classes should be opened in every city during the winter months, where the English language and the rudiments of an English education should be taught. For this purpose the best teachers should be employed, and the classes should meet two or three times a week.

In addition to the regular study, a short time should be devoted at each session to the study, in a conversational way, of Canadian history, thus making them familiar with our laws and civic government.

This work may very profitably be supplemented by giving over one evening each week to social service clubs, or young people's societies, where light entertainment and social improvement should be provided.

For these night classes the Department of Education is giving one-half the cost in cities and two-thirds in towns.

No city or town having any regard for its future citizenship can afford to neglect this means of making better citizens of its foreign population.

The curriculum of our schools provides a course in *Nature Study*. Our teachers are making a splendid effort in this direction, with oft-times very amusing results. The children of the city are, however, deprived of the best Nature Study in not being able to roam the fields and woods at their will as children in the rural districts are privileged to do.

The long summer vacation affords a splendid opportunity for this kind of education.

A very small proportion of our city children spend their holidays at the seaside or even on our beautiful Canadian lakes. The great majority are left to play on the streets, with, in many cases, very disastrous results. Our criminal courts give abundant evidence of the folly, or shall I say crime, of such a neglect of our children.

Every city ought to have supervised playgrounds where, by means of organized play and the proper direction of the children's games, healthful exercise in the open air, the child would greatly benefit, not only physically, but also in a moral sense.

Frequent excursions could be taken to the country districts, and thus the child become familiar with country life.

Visitors to Germany will have frequently observed a class of boys or girls, accompanied by their teacher, taking a suburban car or river steamer going a few miles out of the city, getting off at some small way station, then hieing to the fields and woods or some brook, spending the day or afternoon, unconsciously perhaps, in a true study of nature, swimming in the pool or fishing from its banks, thus laying the foundation for a strong physical and moral manhood. All this can be secured by an investment of some additional salary to one or more of the regular teachers.

In our industrial centres, where the cost of living presses hardly on the masses, the tendency to a short school life grows more and more acute.

Parents remove their children from school at the earliest possible period, viz., fourteen years, and scan the industrial horizon for some occupation in which the highest wage can be earned.

The adaptability of the child to its work is of little concern, so long as the pay envelope is of good dimensions, nor is the choice of the child of its own life-work a factor, and yet in this way a large proportion of our urban population enter upon their life vocation.

They are not apprenticed as formerly to a trade, that they may become skilled artizans, but are mere attachments to a machine, which goes on day after day and year after year turning out some small part of a manufactured article. Men who work in furniture factories are no longer cabinet-makers, nor do our shoe factories employ shoemakers, and the man skilled in his whole trade is rarely found. This brings us to the subject of manual training.

Of recent years in many of our cities, an attempt has been made to teach this subject in connection with our collegiate institutes, so far with very indifferent success. Manual training, as at present taught in our collegiate institutes, is not technical education, and should not form a part of our high school work, but should be taught in the senior divisions of the public schools.

The public school term should be extended for one or even two years, and this additional time devoted to the study of industrial work of a more technical character. Half days might to good advantage be spent in the factory, where wages would be earned, and more attention should be given to vocational study.

At the present time, thousands of girls of tender age are employed in our factories and mercantile establishments, the parents having the same object in view—the earning of wages. No opportunity is afforded for instruction in the duties of housekeeping, and the young woman marries, while utterly unfit for the position she is called upon to fill.

Unhappy marriages and all its attendant evils follow. Girls should be taught domestic science, sewing, etc., and their education should not be considered complete until they have secured a certificate of having received such instruction.

Industrial night classes where men may supplement their neglected or incomplete education, or where young women may secure a knowledge of sewing and household science, should be a part of every high school programme.

The proper distribution of the expense of a collegiate institute is a problem which has confronted many an ambitious Board.

These schools are attended by pupils from outside villages, towns and townships, which come in under the general class of county pupils and, according to our present act governing such schools, are obliged to pay only eighty per cent. of the cost of maintenance, leaving the city to bear all the cost of capital expenditure (buildings and equipment), maintenance of its own pupils, and the balance or twenty per cent. of maintenance of county pupils.

This is an injustice to the city. Some few county councils have voluntarily agreed to pay the full cost of maintenance of their own pupils, but even this leaves the city to pay an ever increasing debt for capital expenditure.

I see no reason for this discrimination, and all parts of the district should, in my opinion, pay a proportion of capital and maintenance equal to their proportionate attendance at the collegiate institute or high school.

There are other problems, not enumerated in this address, of vital importance, but I have referred to those only which I consider most difficult of solution, and I trust that I may have offered some suggestions which may assist other Boards in meeting these difficulties as they occur in their own communities.

DUTIES OF TRUSTEE BOARDS AND THEIR SECRETARIES.

BY H. P. MOORE, ACTON.

If we are to examine the worth of this growing Canada of ours, estimate her present circumstances, and forecast her future, we must have the vision of the prophet. We must concern ourselves not only with the interests of the Canadians of to-day, but with those of the Canadians of to-morrow.

The responsibility for the success of the Canadians of to-morrow rests very largely upon the Trustees who are entrusted with the important work of the management of the public and high schools of to-day. Our Trustees are charged with the high duty of providing the children and youth of our land with convenient and efficient means of obtaining an adequate education, and further, of seeing, up to a certain age at least, that they embrace the opportunities provided.

Education has two distinct values—value as knowledge, and value as discipline. Besides its use for guidance in conduct, the acquisition of each order of facts, it has also its use as mental exercise; and its effects as a preparation for complete living have to be considered under both these heads.

Daniel Webster says: "Knowledge does not comprise all that is contained in the large term of education. The feelings are to be disciplined, the passions are to be restrained; true and worthy motives are to be inspired; a profound religious feeling is to be instilled, and pure morality inculcated under all circumstances." All this is comprised in education, and it is clearly the duty of the School Trustees to aim to secure such teachers and provide such means as will ensure as far as possible to all our children just such a well-rounded education as Webster thus defines.

The Duties of Trustee Boards.

Is it needful that the duties of Trustees as set forth by the Department of Education in the Statutes and Regulations, be presented at this time before this intelligent body of officials? I presume that nearly all here are thoroughly conversant with all this

volume contains, pertaining to the routine of school government as well as with the regulations and amendments issued from time to time, but for the sake of refreshing our memories on some points wherein we may possibly have gotten a trifle rusty at this end of the year, let us give a glance at these duties for a few minutes.

Rules and Regulations of Education Department.

Page 61—See 72—synopsis.

Page 85—See 114, 115 to 122, synopsis 125.

Page 15—See 28, sub. sec. 2, 3, 4.

No one can study these prescribed duties without coming to the conclusion that the responsibility for the success of the school falls not alone upon the principal, the teachers and the County Inspector. The Trustees are also in large measure responsible. In fact, upon them is placed largely the responsibility of determining the character of the school and the influence it shall exert upon the scholars and upon the community.

The object of the Public School is to improve the human race physically, to develop it mentally, and to strengthen it socially and morally. The Public School fails in proportion to its inability to meet these obligations. Healthful environment is the foundation of education; the course of study is the superstructure. The Trustees are wholly responsible for the foundation, and if faithful to their important position, must assume a fair degree of responsibility for the success of the superstructure.

The Trustees' responsibility for providing for the health of the pupils of their Schools is of paramount importance. Happily there are few sections in this fair Province of ours where eligible and spacious sites may not be secured for our school buildings and grounds at reasonable cost. Most of us have comfortable, well-lighted, carefully ventilated buildings. This latter we all may have. Let none of us be guilty of shutting out the cheapest thing on earth—fresh air. Someone has aptly said: "A person may go three weeks without food; three days without water, but only three minutes without air." Medical statisticians claim that bad air kills 40 per cent. of the people and is perhaps largely responsible for the illnesses of the other 60 per cent.

In addition to fresh air we all may have surroundings of trees and flowers, grassy playgrounds and, with very notable exceptions, an ample supply of pure water.

Then there is the Trustees' responsibility for the selection of teachers. It is indeed a grave responsibility. It brings harassing and disappointing experiences. Thirty-five years' continuous experience in advertising for teachers and in corresponding with applicants, has proven to me that while most teachers are honorable and loyal to their engagements, there are exceptions. Some are guilty of accepting engagements from two or more boards at the same time, and, a few days or hours before the opening of the school term, will choose the school which seems to them most attractive in salary or other consideration, and tender resignation of the others. Some are continually on the lookout for better salaries, which, even if offered in the middle of a term, they will take advantage of the one calendar month's notice allowed by the Statute, and leave for pastures new, irrespective of what predicament the school in whose service she was working, may be left in. Other disabilities might be mentioned, but I forbear. As a rule the teachers are cultured Christian men and women, honorable in their relationship with our Trustees, our Schools and our people. I should be the last one to reflect upon them as a class, for I myself found the best woman on earth among them for my life partner.

In this Province of Ontario we owe much to the many faithful teachers for the very gratifying standing our Schools occupy among those of the Schools of the Dominion.

Now, in the matter of the work in the schoolroom itself the Trustees have a measure of responsibility. They should at least satisfy themselves that such elements of true education as self-reliance, fortitude, self-control, endurance and self-sacrifice are being taught. Too often in the past it has been a matter of quantity in the teaching—"a peck of mathematics, a pound of history, a ton of English, a gallon of geography, etc." It is ours to provide for the creation of standards of usefulness and responsibility in all our schools.

I am of the opinion that Trustees generally will agree largely with Inspector Smith, of Wentworth, who said at the recent Inspectors' Convention at Guelph that he thought the time has come when the three *H*'s should take the place of the three *R*'s for the

proper development of the scholars for whose education our Trustee Boards are so largely responsible. By the three *H's* he said he meant the education of the *Hand* to work, the *Head* to plan and contrive, and the *Heart* to govern and control. This adopted, he said, we shall begin to develop the highest type of manhood and womanhood in our pupils.

If the Education Department fails to prescribe and arrange properly balanced courses of study for our scholars then it is the clear duty of the Trustees of the Province, who are vitally interested in the efficient training of our youth, to unite and demand such modifications and readjustments as will meet the requirements of the day.

Naturally, first in importance in the pupil's training is English, oral and written—grammar and composition. It would, of course, be presumptuous in us to outline in any detail any course of study, but as practical men, face to face with the business affairs of life, we may properly suggest, and, if necessary, demand that sufficient attention be given this important subject as will result in correct speech, and the proper expression of written thought. This will make oral reading an essential feature, and will of necessity involve word recognition, phrase recognition, thought recognition and expression. This habit of correct speech must be formed early in life, and the cultivation of the habit should invariably commence in the primary classes of our schools.

A leading educationist has said: "If reading has been efficiently taught, the pupil is able to extract at sight the thought from the printed page, and neither grammar nor composition will present many real difficulties." Continuing, he said: "We cover too much ground in our course of study and teach too many technicalities. I think we all will agree with this. These technical requirements divert the mind from the thought, and in too many cases dull the intellect and discourage the pupil."

Again—Have the Trustees a duty to the community—especially those of the rural schools—in making the schoolhouse a more common meeting place for the activities of the section. It is true the towns and cities are centres of organization, but the rural population must always be the bone and sinew of any country, and the schoolhouse should therefore be the place for training, not only from five or seven to fourteen, but on up through young manhood and womanhood.

Most of us can remember back in the '60's, or '70's, or '80's when the country schoolhouse answered many more purposes than it does to-day. Here was the winter singing school, the debating society, the occasional writing school, the spelling matches, with lectures and debates with champions from a neighboring school, with all the attendant excitement; occasionally a dramatic entertainment, always a meeting place for young and old, and always the opportunity for the beginnings of courtings and matings for all the countryside.

The building, paid for by public tax, was used for community purposes. The result was a closer general acquaintance throughout the section, a freer interchange of friendships, of views, of intellectual stimulus. The social results were large. The people were more interdependent and self-respecting. From scenes like these men went out with their wives to the west to help develop that great land and show the east how to do things. They went to the cities and took the foremost positions. They made their mark and their fortune because of the all-round development afforded through the gatherings, the debates, the lectures and other activities afforded in the old red schoolhouse.

Are there not good reasons for reverting to these old-time experiences? Of all people we need to preserve the original democratic social ideas, and to provide attractively for the interests of those who have so many common needs and aspirations. Should not our Trustees take the initiative and make available again the country school, for community needs? The school authorities should be the active spirits in providing and controlling such use of the school properties in their charge. The increased use of the school building for community interests is the recognition of a human need and the effort to supply that need.

Verily, the duties of Trustees are many and varied, they are oft-times vexatious and exacting, but they are withal important and honorable, and well and faithfully fulfilled they mean more to the community than any other public office in the gift of the people.

The Trustees will always be ready to second or support the efforts of the Inspector and of the teacher to advance the interests and improve the conditions of the Schools in their charge—all other things being considered the success of the school demands confidence and support of teachers and Inspector first. They

will ever fulfil faithfully the duties of their office to the very best of their ability, as they were elected to do, and will not listen to what the people—usually the critics and fault-finders—will say as to such action as they in their wisdom decide to take for the interest or advancement of the work entrusted to their care.

The Secretary-Treasurer.

The occupant of this office should never be appointed for his youth, beauty or influence in the community. The office is never a sinecure, and the man who faithfully performs the duties of the office will always earn whatever remuneration may be fixed as his salary. His duties are laid down by statute as follows:

Page 65. Sec. 75, 1, 2, 3.

Sec. 76, synopsis.

Sec. 77.

But the faithful and efficient Secretary-Treasurer will not feel that his duties are all completed when he complies with this statutory programme.

He will ever be alert for the advancement of the interests of the School of whose Board of Trustees he is the servant.

He will always be ready to welcome new teachers and see that they are able to secure comfortable and satisfactory homes in the new field to which they come as strangers, and aid them in becoming acquainted.

He will see that finances are always promptly provided for the expenditures of the Board, and arrange for the prompt payment of all accounts, especially the salaries of the teachers. The teachers should in all cases, if possible, receive their salaries monthly.

He will have all accounts carefully entered, all cheques and vouchers numbered, and filed consecutively and have his books balanced by the 31st of December in every year. If this is done there will be no vexatious delays in promptly filling out and forwarding the Annual Report to the Inspector, and having books and vouchers ready for the auditors upon their appointment.

The faithful and efficient Secretary will always have all necessary information at hand for the use of the Board when called for, and be ever ready to facilitate the work of the Trustees in the performance of their duties.

When vacancies in the teaching staff arise, and applications have been received he will advise the Chairman, who will, if a wise man, immediately call a meeting of the Board to consider these. When the Board decides upon a teacher, the Secretary will immediately 'phone or wire the decision and ask the teacher for acceptance. When this is obtained the other applicants will then be notified of the Board's action.

When the work of building is in progress the careful attention of the Secretary to his duties in the matter of the necessary correspondence relative to materials, contracts, furnishings, etc., will facilitate the work of the Building Committee, the contractors and the completion of the work.

The Secretary will always be on call. He will, if faithful, be the effective means for the smooth running of the school plant, be the satisfactory medium of communication between the public and the Trustees, and will, by his effective, attentive services have the satisfactory consciousness that his labors have contributed to a very appreciable extent to the success of the educational interests of his locality during his day and generation.

HOME SCIENCE DEPARTMENT.

DIET AND DENTISTRY.

DR. HAROLD CLARK, TORONTO.

Within a few months Sir William Osler has made the statement that the next great thing in the matter of Public Health is coming from the dentist. Any dentist who has been following closely the findings of the investigators of his profession knows exactly what the great physician meant.

Physical degeneracy and with it, and in consequence of it, mental and moral degeneracy are so common about us we are inclined to take it for granted, as inevitable, like dull days, a backward spring or an open winter—something beyond our control, a dispensation of Providence! It would be a large undertaking to awaken Civilization to the fact that this degeneracy, which is the almost exclusive possession of civilized man, is due, very largely, to simple causes, and these causes within our control. This is the great thing in the matter of Public Health that Sir William Osler referred to, and which I shall try to outline to you to-day.

About twenty-five years ago Professor Miller, an American dentist in Berlin, gave to the world the cause of tooth decay. Up to that time there were various theories that were far from convincing. The most generally accepted claimed that tooth decay was due to acids taken into the mouth with food, the acids dissolving the lime out of the tooth tissue. Miller demonstrated that tooth decay was due to germ life in the mouth. Certain bacteria, commonly found in the mouth, give off lactic acid as a by-product in their process of life. Lactic acid, held against tooth tissue, will dissolve the lime out of it just as sulphuric acid will dissolve the lime out of a piece of marble.

During all these years since Miller announced his theory and the experiments from which he drew his deductions, he has been accorded the credit of discovering the cause of tooth decay. The cause being bacterial in origin naturally led to a campaign as wide, almost, as civilization to stop the destruction of teeth by

the use of antiseptics for the mouth and the general cleaning of the teeth. While this has reduced the ravages of decay enough to make it well worth while, the condition of the teeth of civilized mankind is still nothing less than appalling and is a very deep disappointment to those of the dental profession who had hoped that Miller's discovery would prove a fairly workable solution to the problem. If all members of the civilized human family were similarly afflicted the problem would indeed seem hopeless, but we find some immune who give their teeth no care and others with rampant tooth decay who care for their teeth most faithfully. The mystery is even deepened when we observe, now and then, that the delicate child of a family may be practically immune while the other healthy ones are much afflicted. These facts suggest that there must be some elusive factor or factors which, if discovered, would account for the mystery of immunity and susceptibility to tooth decay. Ever since Miller's time our investigators have been looking for the cause of the cause, as it were; the antecedent to the cause set forth by Miller. To know why the ignorant savage should have practically perfect teeth and the average victim of civilization has bad teeth; to know why the members of the same family even show the extremes of immunity and susceptibility; to know why the delicate person, deprived of exercise, sunlight and fresh air, may have good teeth and his robust and well conditioned neighbor may have poor.

It is only quite recently that new light has been thrown on the subject that promises to remove the veil from the mystery, and while there is yet a large amount of labor for the investigator working out details we seem to have the main facts and if full use be made of these facts we can probably remove so much of tooth decay, of the ills and miseries, of the physical and moral degeneracy about us that we should indeed be enthusiastic over the prospect.

It has been demonstrated that where more carbohydrate food (i.e., starches and sugars), have been eaten than the system can use, a digested surplus, a dissolved carbohydrate, finds its way into the circulation and by way of salivary glands into the mouth. It is then a substance resembling what is technically known as Glycogen. As we shall have frequent occasion to refer to this substance we shall, for convenience, call it glycogen. In observations in our infirmaries it is found that mouths that are immune

to tooth decay have little or no glycogen, while mouths that have rampant tooth decay abound with it. Now this carbohydrate substance, glycogen, when taken to the bacteriological laboratory and infected with the germs commonly found in the mouth, proves to be a most fertile culture medium—a good rich soil, as it were. By way of illustration: If we were to put pansy seeds into brickdust we know they would remain good pansy seeds but they would not grow. If we mix with the brickdust good, rich, moist earth, they begin to grow. Just so with the germs in the mouth. They are relatively harmless in the normal fluids of the mouth; but when they encounter a fertile culture medium in this glycogen they multiply at a rapid rate. The inference is easily drawn. The over-ingestion, i.e., the over-eating of carbohydrate food results in the unused portion—the surplus, pouring into the mouth by way of the circulation. This element, added to the normal fluids of the mouth, renders them very fertile in the multiplication of the germs in the mouth. While these germs are few in number, their toxins, or poisons, are so small in quantity as to be negligible, the normal saliva rendering them harmless. As soon as the fertile culture medium, the glycogen, enters the mouth the rapid multiplication of the bacteria changes the whole situation. The increased toxins get the upper hand and do their baneful work unhindered. Undoubtedly, many of the ills that make life miserable get their beginnings right here in this way, but we are considering tooth decay just now and must not wander from our subject.

We have all, probably, studied chemistry enough to understand what happens when we put a drop of sulphuric acid on a piece of polished marble. The lime is dissolved out of the marble, leaving a rough spot where it was polished. Now, the commonest varieties of germ life found in the mouth give off lactic acid as a by-product. If the quantity in the mouth is small the alkaline saliva neutralizes it and renders it harmless, but if the quantity is large it overpowers the alkalinity of the saliva and becomes dominant. And, right here we must consider a point in digestion which was taught to, and understood by, teachers in my day and I presume is yet. The saliva contains a digestive ferment, known as Ptyalin, whose function is to convert the insoluble starch into a soluble sugar. This ptyalin is unable to perform its function in an acid medium. As soon as the increased amount

of lactic acid renders the mouth acid the ptyalin ceases to act and any starchy debris left in the mouth remains unconverted. It is probable that this unconverted starch in the mouth plays an important role in the decay of tooth tissue. It becomes a very adhesive paste clinging to surfaces of the teeth that are remote from the friction of mastication. It contains and nourishes the germs that generate the lactic acid; holds the acid against the tooth, and begins the process of decay. Just as the sulphuric acid dissolved the lime out of the marble, so does the lactic acid dissolve the lime from the teeth. First it dulls the polished surface of the enamel. Soon it becomes rough and the adhesion of the starch is more unyielding. In time it penetrates the tooth tissue until we have a cavity. If this is neglected, the decay progresses toward the vital pulp in the heart or centre of the tooth. When this organ is reached it becomes infected. This results in irritation, inflammation and pain, and now we have ordinary tooth-ache. After a time the increased infection of the pulp results in its death and subsequent putrefaction. The products of putrefaction in time pass out through the openings at the ends of the roots, carrying the infection with them. This sets up irritation and inflammation in the socket of the tooth. The tooth does not ache now, but becomes unbearably sore to touch. This condition usually culminates in an abscess. Anyone who has passed through this experience, even with one tooth, will surely agree that Burns was justified in calling it, "The Hell of all diseases." If left to itself this abscess follows the line of least resistance, usually out onto the cheek side of the gums. It breaks and empties the contained pus into the mouth. The pain subsides but the abscess rarely heals. It continues to pour pus into the mouth to be swallowed and become responsible for various maladies running the gamut all the way from a vitiated digestion to pernicious anaemia.

Right here, I wish to dwell upon one further point that I regard as of paramount importance. Carbohydrate foods include, as we have already said, starches and sugar. Every time we eat beets, carrots, corn, apples, oranges and many other vegetable foods we get a certain amount of sugar. Sugar is a substance that exists in the tissues of many plants or vegetables and civilized man has learned how to extract this sugar from the vegetable substances in which it is found, and we have what we may call commercial

sugar which is a very concentrated carbohydrate. It is as artificial a substance as morphine or strychnine. And just as those substances produce their characteristic impressions on us, so also does sugar; and its specific impression is this: To the average human palate sugar is so attractive that it is eaten away beyond the natural promptings of hunger. We will not only eat sugar but any food made rich with it away beyond the satisfaction of real hunger. And therein, probably lies the real secret of the disaster it is working for civilized humanity. Without it, the mere satisfaction of hunger would, probably, be all the guide necessary to stop us automatically when we had enough. But so much of our carbohydrate food is sweetened with artificial sugar we commonly eat more of it than our system can use, and the baneful results already outlined follow. And tooth decay is only one of the maladies made prevalent by the same cause. Before leaving the topic just discussed an illustration may give it point. A hungry man may eat heartily of meat and good vegetables and assure you that he can take no more and then take a good helping and perhaps a second of sweetened rice pudding. If, instead of the sweetened pudding he had been offered plain boiled rice, he would not have touched it, proving that the joke about the little boy's definition of a dessert is no joke at all. His definition was: Dessert is what you eat after you have had enough.

Now, I want to draw your attention to at least one further cause of tooth decay and other maladies that accompany it. If it is less significant than the carbohydrate factor in the causation of tooth decay, it is just barely so.

Our civilization has lasted many generations, but the countless generations that preceded it make its period seem "as a hand-breadth," and we find that the endeavor of civilization to change the order of things established throughout so long a period has in many ways resulted in disorder, and, perhaps, in no way is this more striking than in the modification of food.

There are enough aboriginal races in existence to-day, quite unaffected by civilization, to enable us to make studies and draw conclusions as to the conditions of primitive mankind. These conclusions become more interesting and more convincing when verified by observation of the skulls of pre-historic man.

His vegetable food was of a comparatively fibrous nature. Much cellulose material was mixed with the nutritious. In order to get

the nutriment from the food it was necessary for him to subject it to a long and thorough process of mastication. Three results attended this operation. One was a rubbing and cleaning of the teeth with the rough food that was more thorough and effective than any tooth-brush operation. Another was the thorough mixing of the starchy parts with saliva and their consequent digestion by the ptyalin ferment contained. The third result was the inclusion of a considerable amount of the rough, fibrous and non-nutritious portion of the food in what was passed on to the stomach. The action of this was to keep the food open, or porous, as it were, and allow the digestive fluids to readily permeate the mass, and thereby facilitate digestion. The rough character of this fibrous portion of the food serves another useful purpose. Its very roughness rubs and stimulates the walls of the intestinal tract, causing a full and normal flow of the intestinal secretions. This same stimulation causes a vigorous muscular action in the walls of the intestines ensuring the onward movement of their contents. The animal food of primitive man was likewise much tougher than ours—incredible as that may seem!—and demanded much more vigorous mastication. The savage of to-day, if we find him untouched by civilization is usually an ideal for us so far as his physical well-being is concerned. They have neither cows nor goats and when their children are weaned from their mothers' breasts they immediately eat food that requires more or less mastication. Before a child is two years old he is equipped with at least four molars. At two years he should have eight molars, an efficient upper and nether millstone! If he is given food that requires to be well masticated the jaws become well developed and large, affording ample room for the new, permanent teeth when they come. The tongue, in the process of mastication, is given heavy exercise and becomes well developed and the new teeth have to arrange themselves in a larger arc or arch to make room for the larger tongue. The child of primitive man had no need of the orthodontist. His teeth found plenty of room awaiting them and arranged themselves in regular order. Compare all this with conditions about us to-day. Long after the child has parted with his mother's milk he is still fed upon cow's milk or food soaked in milk or starchy food prepared in a semi-fluid condition. For a long time after he has a full equipment of teeth nearly everything he eats is carefully prepared pap. Right here,

I am afraid I must take a fall out of my friend the physician, or at least a large number of the profession. His interest in the matter of feeding children seems to commence with the stomach and the mouth merely serves the purpose of a hopper by which the food may reach the stomach. His anxiety that the child's food shall be easily digested is probably responsible for the large amount of soft pappy food prescribed. I frequently have zealous mothers tell me of the great care they take in preparing their little ones' food, and I am often convinced that the poor things would be much better with no care at all.

The main points I have been trying to set before you are really new thought—so much so that it is not yet in the textbook. There is yet a great deal of work to be done by the investigator and original research man in both the medical and dental professions before we can be dogmatic on many points where conviction is strong. But there is enough that is proven that we may go ahead confident that we have a new gospel of health which, if lived up to, would undoubtedly remove an enormous portion of the misery, the sickness, the degeneracy that is everywhere about us. Of course we must not shut our eyes to human frailties; our disinclination to leave the well-accustomed path and blaze for ourselves a new trail, like the roué whose physician advised him to give up "wine, women and song" if he wished to regain his normal health and well-being. Subsequently he complained to the physician that he wasn't much better, and when asked if he had carried out the advice given him he replied, "Well, I don't sing any more!" All missionary effort must be content with partial success, for a convert to a good cause or principle often becomes a better missionary than the missionary.

In my own practice I have for years enquired into the diet of all patients presenting the extremes of immunity or susceptibility and have learned a great deal thereby. I have observed many with bad teeth, sometimes accompanied by poor health, who have been prevailed upon to adopt a modified and rational diet and be rewarded with a cessation of tooth decay and generally improved health. I have a very strong faith within me that if mothers were taught the principles of a rational diet for their children; and along with this, if the children in the schools were further instructed in these principles we should have results so gratifying that all the well-known benefits of tooth brushing, etc., would seem almost insignificant.

The child whose diet has been wrong and the subsequent effects on the teeth neglected is so appallingly common in the community that it becomes dangerously near being general, especially among the poor. Let us follow such a case. Sugar is cheap, and a one-cent piece will buy a lot of cheap candy. It is often the one indulgence a poor parent can give his child. The teeth of course decay; poverty and ignorance deny him the reparative work of the dentist, and soon it is too painful to chew upon them. The food is taken into the mouth, moistened with the tongue and swallowed. This is soon followed by indigestion. The poisons from the decayed and putrescent teeth are swallowed and absorbed, and are added to the handicap of the indigestion. Lowered vitality follows and, with it, susceptibility to every infectious malady that invades the weakened organism, and also with it, inability to recuperate. Physical degeneracy is established and soon followed by mental and moral degeneracy. It may seem a long cry from the candy box and the sugar bowl and the slop food to the degenerate described, but to one who has had opportunity to observe they are as surely related as the pull of the trigger and the explosion of the gun. Let us consider what practical use we may make of all these observations. It seems to me that the broad principles of diet already suggested can be well understood not only by the physician, the dentist, the teacher and the parent, but even by the intelligent child over ten or twelve years of age. And it was the hope of getting at the mass of children through the teacher that induced me to attempt this paper.

In my practice I explain to my patients, both adults and children, these facts about diet that have bearing on the health of their mouths. For reasons already explained I don't say much about starch, but lay the blame where it most belongs, i.e., on sugar. I tell them that sugar is a good food up to the point that it is all used in the system. If there is any surplus, some of it finds its way, after digestion, into the mouth and makes it a fertile incubator for the disease germs that may be there. The germs that cause tooth decay are always there. They only need the fertile soil. Without it they are harmless. I suggest the common sources of sugar: the candy box, the sugar-bowl, sugar dissolved in drinks, tea, coffee, etc., sugar spread on food, such as puddings and other desserts, sugar cooked in foods, such as cakes, pies and pastry of all kinds; jams, jellies, marmalade, honey, syrup, etc.

Unless one has a decided distaste for sweet things, the multitude of ways that sugar comes before us makes it hard to escape eating too much unless one understands the principles I have tried to make clear, and adopts a regimen for himself. I also explain to my patients the importance of avoiding food that does not require thorough chewing—putting the ban on all such foods as porridge and puddings, soft cakes, etc., recommending in their place crusty bread, rusks, shredded wheat, puffed wheat, triscuits, etc. As a substitute for the starchy desserts that I discourage I recommend the use of fruits. And this brings up a point that should not be omitted in this discussion. It is observed that where a meal is finished with a tart fruit, the salivary glands in a short time are pouring an alkaline saliva into the mouth, and this alkalinity will last for hours. Where it is finished with a sweetened starchy food the opposite results. The mouth becomes acid. The theory one would deduce from these facts is obvious. As far as possible terminate meals with fruit. One of our best English authorities uses the expression “That vicious American habit of commencing breakfast with fruit, instead of ending it.” If one must commence with fruit, let him also finish with it. The soundness of the theory is well borne out by statistical facts. Sicilians are known to eat quantities of lemons. It is also a fact that they have remarkably good teeth. No less an authority than Prof. J. Sim Wallace says that the people of the fruit-growing counties of England, such as Kent, have noticeably better teeth than in other parts of the country. It is a significant fact that as one goes north in England and Scotland they get their fruit more in the form of jams and marmalade, which, of course, are very rich in sugar.

Statistics show that the teeth of the people of Great Britain are probably the worst in the world. Statistics also show that Great Britain consumes more sugar than any country in the world. Where statistics have been taken of large numbers of working men and school children the number afflicted with tooth decay runs up to over 98 per cent. Among certain aboriginal races beyond the pale of civilization the figures are reversed. About two per cent. show dental decay and 98 per cent. immunity.

In closing this paper may I express the hope that it may have proved interesting to those who have heard it, and that it may enlist the co-operation of those who are in a position to test the principles of diet set forth.

EDUCATION FOR WOMEN.

BY DR. G. C. CREELMAN, GUELPH.

The late Honourable Sir George Ross recently published a book on his Parliamentary experiences; the late Sir Richard Cartwright has done the same, and Sir John Willison, editor of the *News*, has addressed several Canadian Clubs, during the past year, on reminiscences of Canadian public men. We are, therefore, making history, real history, in Canada, and our public men are now beginning to write and talk about it as though we were a real nation.

What I would like to discuss with you for a short time is woman's place in Canadian history in the twentieth century.

There is no question that up to this time it has been felt that woman's whole duty is to make herself attractive, and then to follow the lead of the men folks of the family, in every particular. This to my mind is wrong, has always been wrong, and must now be righted. It cannot be done, however, by merely saying so; woman has got to assert herself.

First, by learning many things that have been thought necessary only for the education of men. Secondly, she has got to learn these things well, so as to be able to speak accurately at least on the common things that everyone should know.

EDUCATION.

Nearly every person who discusses this subject at all, has his or her own definition of education, and I am not going to give one, although I have my own opinion; but I do know, that in addition to making herself attractive, the woman of the twentieth century *has got to know things, and do things* that the woman of past centuries had no hand in whatever. Therefore, her education has got to be different from the education of our grandmothers.

To start with, what do we know, or rather what do our girls know, specifically about any one thing?

(1) Have they classified the world's literature into different schools, and noted its influence upon the world's history, or have they just read some books of a few authors, so as to be able to say

that they "love Dickens" and "hate Thackeray"—that they "just dote on Marie Corelli," "but Scott makes them tired"? If they have not, then they should start at once to outline a course of reading for themselves and stick to it for the next five years, until they can talk intelligently on the world's best books, and understand something of the conditions under which they were written.

(2) What do our girls know about History? I do not mean the history that they learned at school, which was mostly dates, or a list of kings, or a record of battles, or tabulated statements of parliamentary enactments, but the history of the world. Briefly, of Palestine, Egypt, Rome, Britain, of Canada, of Ontario, and one's own country. It does not take long to master such a series of events, and yet a knowledge of those things gives you something to talk about, and something to think about.

(3) Then, we should study Canada: Not one girl in ten can tell you the exact location of any town in Canada with a population under 5,000 unless she lives close to it. Not one girl in a hundred would be able to tell you the population of any of our large cities, within many thousands, and hardly any girl is able to tell you what Canada grows for export, or what she imports; what her waterways are worth to Canada, where they are, and the amount of tonnage transported on our great lakes. The words Cobalt and Porcupine are now common expressions, and yet I doubt if there is one girl in a thousand could give me any idea of the gold and silver shipped out of these camps each year, or what effect these shipments have upon the world's supply of precious metals.

Girls' education seems to be confined, yet, to general school studies, including Mathematics, and the so-called culture studies, such as Music and Art. This seems remarkable to me, and I cannot understand it. Why girls should not know all of our *common trees*, and *flowers and plants* has always been a mystery, because trees and flowers and plants always must be associated with the word "Home."

I have very much doubt if anyone in this room can tell me if there are any basswood trees on these grounds, or how many kinds of maples; or the difference between the Canadian and Norway spruce; whether Scotch pine or white pine would be better to plant on the average Ontario farm, or what are the best

plants for a perennial garden. You may have been told of all these things and you may have them all down in your notes, but that is not knowing them; and yet there is not a home in this country, where there is a bit of land about it at all, that could not be made just as beautiful as any park, if the girl in the home only knew what to plant, and where to get it.

Get a good book on Practical Botany then and work these things out for yourself, and do not have anyone cast it up to you that you have been a year or two at a normal school or college and do not know the common plants and the common trees of the country.

English people have learned this lesson so well, and it is such a joy to them as they get older to have their gardens to fall back on as a source of perpetual pleasure during the changing seasons.

Picnics, and the dance, and the game must all have their day, but it is surprising how soon a girl tires of these things after her college life is over and how little she has to fall back on as a result of her training at school. Then, a knowledge of growing things becomes a source of joy and pleasure that will stay with her always.

THOROUGHNESS.

"Pass me the 'what you may call it,'" may go among college girls, but you have got to know the names of things when you begin to take responsibility. Lack of attention to details is one of the great faults of the present day of both men and women. That is, we do a little Drawing, and learn a little English, and a little French, and a little Chemistry, and so on and so forth, and yet we cannot discuss any one of these subjects intelligently when we have passed through the high school. From that time on, therefore we should become, more or less, specialists, coming to know accurately and thoroughly some few things. A lack of thoroughness is often judged by—

- (1) Our carelessness in writing.
- (2) Inaccurate spelling.
- (3) The use of the expression "I guess" instead of "I know."
- (4) The use of slang, which often means nothing, to cover up our deficiency in the knowledge of the subject under discussion.

We say—"That is going some" when we have no idea how much, or how fast.

The *temperate* person means the person who is thorough. That is, one who does not make extravagant statements, does not eat extravagant meals, does not keep extravagant hours, does not overdo exercise by playing tennis until one can scarcely walk, and then resting for two or three days to get over it. These are the people who accomplish very little; but the well-balanced person is careful in everything she does, is systematic in the way she does it, and, therefore, has always time for recreation as well as for work. Oh that our girls were more temperate—that is, more thorough in all their work! Kipling says:—"If you can keep your head when all around you are losing theirs and blaming it on you," that is when real education counts—education that has been thorough.

"*Do the thing that liest nearest*" is one of the best mottoes ever written, for both men and women. That means do not put off—it means do not mope and think that other people are having it easier than you are; it means *get things done*, and if you are working for somebody else, that counts most towards promotion.

Domestic Responsibility.

First—the house.

I believe that as one enters a home, he can almost tell the character of the inhabitants as he looks about him. In this day, three things, in my opinion, are absolutely necessary for health, comfort and happiness.

First—Order.

Second—Cleanliness.

Third—Simplicity.

I believe that if our people lived as though they expected any time to put all their goods in trunks or suit cases and start off on a journey, their homes would be much more pleasant to live in. By that I mean, we are all apt to hoard up trinkets, truck, tawdry ornaments, old photographs, old furniture and a thousand and one things that make it almost impossible to have order.

Cleanliness need not be dwelt upon, but it is pretty hard to keep things clean when things are not in order.

In the third place, simplicity is the most important of all. Here's where our girls will have a chance to use their influence when the home is being built, or re-built. The old-fashioned square house, with big rooms down stairs, seems to be coming back into favour. The drawing-room or parlor is going out of fashion and the living room is becoming the handiest, the most suitable, and the most used room in the house. This simplifies the work very much, and leaves only one room to tidy up the last thing at night or the first thing in the morning, and gives the housekeeper a chance to do other things besides sweep and dust a big house nearly every day of the week.

In planning a house of the future, I hope we will all keep simplicity in view. Have permanent cupboards, book cases, linen closets, and so forth, all built into the walls of the house.

Never make a verandah less than eight feet wide.

Have open fire-places everywhere, and have the kitchen so well ventilated that the guests cannot make even a guess at what they are going to have for dinner when they enter the front door. A few simple rules may make house-keeping very easy, whereas modern narrow halls, and narrow passages everywhere make it almost impossible to keep a house well ventilated at all times.

A Few Thoughts on Women's Share in Economics.

Men cannot successfully work alone in the economic world, and when women understand the necessity of economic co-operation then will there be more ideal homes and model nations.

The mass of women choose not business, but the home as the field for their activity, and for this labour of love there is small preparation.

Thinkers have come to admit that the education of women is somehow at fault.

Serious women are not asking for more decorative advantages, but for knowledge which gives to them greater powers for usefulness.

A woman cannot emancipate herself from nature's laws, she must accept them. but in their right conception is a world of liberty.

That the problems of wise living are difficult is small reason why they should be ignored, or why they should be solved by families fleeing to hotels or boarding houses.

Housework may be simplified whenever a body of thoughtful women think it worth while to make its simplification a study.

There is an unlimited amount of sentiment written and recognized concerning home life which in our hearts we sacredly cherish; but when women awaken to their true responsibility they must admit that more than sentiment is required to make an ideal family life.

The home, with all it implies, is equally sacred to men and to women and to every rank of life. If it is to be preserved it must be cared for thoughtfully and earnestly. It has been entrusted to women, and the girl of to-day is the matron of to-morrow.

PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE SECTION.

THE ETHICAL VALUE OF PLAY.

BY MR. FRED J. SMITH, TORONTO.

(Physical Director, Central Y.M.C.A., Toronto).

Several early writers among the Germans made an attempt to define the play tendency. The most prominent was Scheller, whose statement, condensed to a sentence is, "Play is the aimless expenditure of exuberant force and as it has no excuse for action there is no ulterior motive." The first one to seriously attempt a definition of play was Spencer. He took a point of view similar to that of Scheller, but elaborated on it and worked it out in much more detail than did Scheller. In explanation of the fact that humans are more prone to play than are animals he offered this: "In lower animals practically all of their energy is taken up in securing nourishment, defending their lives and reproducing their kind. This accounts for all the energy which they may derive from their food. In the higher animals, especially man, it is characteristic of the nervous system that with an accumulation of energy the cells become charged (chemically) with the ingredients that go to make up an explosion, and further, the opportunity for this charging is very great because we do not spend all of our time in securing nourishment and in fighting, so we play."

As we study the history of the different races, do we not find that the leading nations have good play traditions? Play is universally looked upon as one of the greatest means of educating the child. But we are not so much interested in play theories as we are that the children of Ontario will get the play that nature intended they should for the development of spirit, mind and body. That a child needs to play in order to be healthy, to acquire control of its mental faculties, to think and do, needs no discussion, but the place of play in human conduct as related to ethics is a question for determination.

The necessity of educating children physically as well as mentally during their school life has been advocated and recognized by many prominent educators in ancient and modern times. It is now two thousand years since the Greeks gave every free-born child a chance to play and it is nearly two thousand years since a Man in Judea proclaimed the rights of childhood, and yet the leaders in the Playgrounds Movement tell us that there are over 22,000,000 children in the United States and Canada without year-round playgrounds.

But the playgrounds, if they were doubled in our large cities, where they are so much needed, would only touch comparatively few of our children. It is in the home and in the school-yard that we have our greatest opportunity for teaching ethics through play. Most children are selfish and domineering and it is only by the right supervision and instruction that this anti-ethical spirit can be changed. I wonder if we really understand the opportunity that we have during the school age to weave into the very fibre of our girls and boys the elements of Christian character. We should at this time instil into them a firmness to their playmates that we can reach at no other time in their lives. All emotion has a physical basis and the child who will win at all costs is doing something that will injure its life later on. So if we let this spirit get the better of the children under our control we are false to our trust, for is it not very likely that they will act in business later on with very much the same spirit? Every animal has its play life. Have we not all watched the kitten, as it developed by play, worry the spool as it will the mouse later on in life? Have we not seen the pup in his play tear the threads from a garment as he will the flesh from a bone? So if we can teach the children the right spirit of play, the right attitude to their playmates, is not this of great ethical value?

If we could only realize what it means for a child to be brought up in the congested districts of our big cities, surely we would do everything in our power to promote play, for play is an imperative need; it is nature's way of making a man out of a boy. It is usually through play that a child gets its first introduction to society. Have we not all seen the only child, brought up like a household plant, become an autocrat, and have we not seen these same children take many hard knocks before they learned the democracy of the gang?

Play may mean amusement, or recreation, or that thing which children do when adults suppose they are amusing themselves. Play demands intense attention for it is a development of personal activity of the highest part of self. Some one has said that when a baby lies on its back and plays with its toes "it is actuated by a similar impulse to Livingstone when he crossed Africa, or the violin-maker who makes violins better than necessary through sheer love of the undertaking. They are in pursuit of an ideal."

The lash of economic necessity has not produced the greatest things in the world. Play should not be something less than work. One may play when building a home, or one may work. This is illustrated very well by a canoe trip. How one will trudge over rocky portages with a heavy load until one's knees shake and the muscles ache, but the fresh air, the ever-changing scenery, and the lure of the wild makes it play; but your guide leads the way muttering under his breath at times for to him this is work.

Play should be part of one's life-work and when it is made such, is it not glorious? Surely teachers of physical training have a great opportunity in this respect.

Ethical conduct springs from self-control, not from control by others. This is a primary reason why children should play, and in this connection "the city boy without a place to play is father to the man without a job." But there must be a kind of "mutual consent control" in the play, such as is seen in team play, which is one of the best ways to develop moral power, where the individual sinks self into the consciousness of the whole. While not under compulsion, the individual is one of a group and yet is at his best when completely lost in the whole.

The group games of football, hockey, lacrosse, in fact any of the strenuous games in which Anglo-Saxons love to take part, are great character developers; for here the players combine with one object in view—the winning of the contest. But it is only when the players are taught the right spirit towards the other fellow that the ethical value of these games is realized.

Do we not agree with Dr. Hutchinson that "play is a provision of nature intended to bring out not only physical but moral and intellectual strength." Every play that is worth the name develops strength, endurance, alertness, quickness of response, coolness, balance in judgment.

The ingenuity of children will go a long way to provide for their play instincts, but those in authority have an obligation that cannot be avoided. We imagine that athletic games have been a natural upgrowth of the educative demands of the children. Most of these games train the hands and eyes as well as directly the brain. Children who are allowed to play until seven or eight years of age, or even ten, and then enter school, we are told, often overtake those who enter two or three years earlier. Is it not natural that, if we give a child normal surroundings, he will learn to use his brain wisely—very much as he learns to use his arms and legs wisely.

Dr. Luther Gulick says: "Play in itself is neither good nor bad. To sink one's very soul in loyalty to the gang is in itself neither good nor bad. The gang may be a peril to the city, as indeed is the case in many cities. The gang of boys that grow up to be the political unit bent merely upon serving itself, possessing a power which mutual loyalty alone can give, is thereby able to exploit others for its own advantage in a way that is most vicious." My point is that these mutual relationships have an ethical effect. This effect may be toward evil and it may be toward good, but the ethical nature in itself is primarily related to self-control.

Anti-ethical play is worse than no play at all. It is not merely play that our cities and our children need. But they need the kind of play that makes for wholesome moral and ethical life; the play that makes for those relationships between individuals that will be true to the adult ideals which belong, and should belong, to the community. Dr. Gulick says, "The two great institutions that have to deal with children—the school and the home—rest primarily upon the development of the qualities of obedience. The playground alone affords to children the one great opportunity for cultivating those qualities that grow out of meeting others, of like kind, under conditions of freedom. This develops progressively from babyhood on; the sense of human relationship which is basal to wholesome living. Thus the play spaces, wherever they are, under expert supervision should be ethical laboratories." Surely then we cannot over-estimate the responsibility of parents, teachers, or play supervisors, for the ethical value of play depends absolutely upon the proper spirit of supervision.

Democracy must provide not only a seat and instruction in school, but also play and good play traditions for every child. Without the development of these social instincts, without the growing of the social conscience—which has its roots in the early activities of play—we cannot expect adults to possess those higher feelings which rest upon the earlier social virtues developed during childhood. “The sandpile for the small child, the playground for the middle-sized child, and the athletic field for the boy; wholesome means of social relationship during these periods are fundamental conditions without which democracy cannot continue because upon them rests the development of that self-control which is related to an appreciation of the needs of the group.”

Finally, as we look back over our own lives was it not this spirit of play that made them worth while? Do we not pity the boy or the man who has not felt that thrill just before the gun cracks in the sprint, or before the whistle blows in the competitive game? Surely we believe in play contests because they help to make men and women alert, vigorous and strong. Competition fits for life, and competitive athletics is no exception to the rule. Contests rightly conducted bring out the idea of grit, determination, gameness and fairness which mean so much in the building of a strong character.

I believe that in play we have one of the greatest factors for the teaching of social ethics; for here we teach ethics in action, not by theory. To play in the sunlight is a child's right and it is not to be cheated out of it; and when it is cheated out of it, it is not the child but the community that is robbed of that besides which all its wealth is but tinsel and trash—for men, not money, make a country great and joyless children do not make good men.

THE OPEN-AIR SCHOOL.

BY W. E. STRUTHERS, B.A., M.D., L.R.C.P., M.R.C.S.,
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The first Open-Air School was established at Charlottenberg, Germany, in 1904, and was really intended for tuberculous children. The results of this initial effort were so satisfactory that other countries soon followed the example of Germany. Liverpool is given the credit of having begun the movement for Open-Air Schools in the British Empire. Miss Eastwick started a school for children with tuberculous disease of spine and joints. Open-Air Schools are now established at London, Birmingham, Bradford, Halifax, Norwich, and other places. Providence established the first Open-Air School in America in 1908; later in the year two other cities established such schools; in 1909, seven cities had Open-Air Schools; in 1910, fifteen cities; in 1911, thirty cities; in 1912, sixty cities, and in 1913, eighty cities. Toronto began in 1912, doubled its initial effort in 1913, and has again doubled its work for 1914.

The difficulty or uselessness of trying to cram a child's head full of knowledge that had an enfeebled, poorly nourished or sick body has been slowly recognized. For many years the child's body has been neglected, and its mind coddled and spoon fed. Educationists failed to realize the tremendous importance of the physical condition upon mental development; many teachers still fail to realize it. In the higher grades we find fewer children with physical defects. The mental tasks have been a thorough physical endurance test. Those with physical defects and under-nourished bodies were hampered or stopped in their school progress; they never reached the higher grade. But parents, educationists, and governments hand out the same tasks to the nervous, half-blind, semi-deaf, anæmic, ill-nourished, diseased, rachitic, ptomaine-poisoned child as to a normal child. What a burlesque on common sense, and what refined cruelty! The embittered, wasted, criminal lives of many children cry out against this haphazard, irresponsible, God-help-us method of dealing with child life. A true knowledge of child care should be more general. Personal and general hygiene and health education should have

a far more prominent place in the school curriculum. A sane knowledge of its own body and its care will mean more to a child than a smattering of art and music. Many a child is backward, physically or mentally defective, vicious, criminal, because of uncleanliness, improper feeding, disease and neglect. It is the highest and truest economy for the State to see that every child gets its fair chance in life.

In Open-Air Schools health is given first consideration. Here we gather the poor little waifs whose home and school conditions robbed them of their patrimony—health; the anæmic, undernourished, poorly developed, pretuberculous, backward, uncared-for children—the children who will otherwise be physical weaklings, who will fill the class of the shiftless, fill the reformatories, the hospitals, the sanatoria, the shelters, the prisons, penitentiaries, and asylums, who make the loafers and criminals of adult life, who never had the asset of a healthy, vigorous, clean body, or knew the inspiration of a clean mind.

These children are first taught how to live. It must not be forgotten that the education of the young child is primarily physical, and not primarily intellectual. To some extent modern life makes home training and supervision incomplete or faulty. The school, therefore, in some measure, must take the place of the home, and the teachers undertake some of the duties of parents. But this should be a partnership between the State and the family and bring the school into closer relation with the home. It is poor economy on the part of the State to allow children who are underfed, physically defective, or diseased to attend school. The child receives little or no benefit from a costly education; it is not being fitted for useful citizenship; instead of the child becoming an asset to the nation it becomes a total loss, for after a lingering, painful effort to overcome its handicap it either enters criminal life or dies in its youth. To cure obvious disease, to remove obvious physical defect is but the obvious evidence of ordinary humanity. Our vision and our wisdom should enable us to see further into the future; let us train children how to live in a healthful way, and teach them the laws of health. Personal and general hygiene are of specially vital importance in modern life.

At Open-Air Schools children usually spend ten hours out of the twenty-four in the open. What effect has this open-air life—simply breathing the open air—upon health, physical and mental

development? It is easy to see general effects and to make general statements, but almost impossible to obtain comparative statistics. for we must not forget the other things at the Forest School that have their effect on the general health. Here we might consider the relative importance of the purity, humidity, temperature, and movement of the air; the respiration of the lungs, and the respiration of the body; the whole question of school ventilation. How much does heating air impair its value to the human body? How much does the high temperature demanded by the body in a dry atmosphere produce superficial breathing and impair expansion of air cells? How much does the lack of air movement in the ordinary classroom prevent change in the aerial envelope and impair body respiration? The condition of the aerial envelope or body air depends on temperature, humidity, the tonicity, and movement of air. Heated air loses its vitality or tonicity. Elaborate experiments have shown that the condition of this aerial envelope is a very important part of the hygiene of the body, and has a very marked effect on the health. When this air is very dry it absorbs moisture from the body at a high rate, the body is cooled by evaporation, and we feel cold. When the air is moist and warm it does not absorb moisture, and we feel too hot. When the air is moist and cold it absorbs heat from the body rapidly, and again we feel cold. So it would appear nature intended human beings to live out of doors, for it seems impossible to approximate the conditions of outside air in buildings ventilated by mechanical systems. At Lincoln Park Zoo, Chicago, some newly-acquired monkeys were kept in well-ventilated, evenly-heated rooms approximating their native climate conditions. One by one the monkeys sickened and died. The gamekeeper grew tired of his continual losses, so he bundled some of those nearest death outside, giving them no artificial heat, and only a shelter from storm. The dying monkeys revived, gained strength, and soon grew fat.

The "Dilution" or "Gravity" Ventilation System is the one in common use in schools. The fresh air inlet is placed near the ceiling in one of the interior walls, and the outlet at the floor of the same wall. Local currents are caused in such class rooms by window and exterior wall leakage, cold local surfaces, and hot local surfaces. But movement of air, especially in the centre, is slight, and these "dead" areas become foul and offensive. This system requires thirty cubic feet per minute per child to insure reason-

able comfort and maintain reasonably pure air. Any greater amount will cause draughts, and wind blowing ten miles an hour will frequently cause the outlets to become inlets. In the "Displacement" Ventilation System the air is introduced at each seat, passing upward slowly to outlets in the ceiling. This system is effective only where there is no cold outside wall, or a well-insulated one, no glass surface or double and air-tight windows. Such rooms do not require radiators, and local currents will be avoided. This system has so far only been used in a few theatres.

Recent demands for school buildings with greater flexibility, that is, adaptability in arrangement so that buildings will serve not only for class-room instruction, but also for shop, athletic, recreation, and social centre purposes, with greater safety and simplicity, have produced three types of schools:

1st: The one storey school insuring safety against fire, panic, and unhygienic conditions and necessitating a smaller number of children at one school.

2nd: The open-air type of school—approximating outside conditions of air.

3rd: The cottage school—each class in a separate building—requiring large school grounds.

Cold quickens and deepens the respiration and produces a corresponding increased rate of metabolism. This calls for increased physical exercise; and physical drill, calisthenic and other exercises are frequently given at the open-air school. In fact, the school periods are only about one-half the time at the regular day school. The rest of the time is given to sleep, play, gymnastic exercises, nature study, and drill. We must consider, too, the therapeutic effect of direct sunlight. It is said that the refracted rays of the sun are equivalent in their effect to mild X-rays.

Food.—The Science of Nutrition has a close and practical relation to the Science of Eugenics, and both to Education, for it boots little to have a child well born if it is not well fed, trained, and disciplined. Meals are always partaken in the open, even in places where the school is continued through the winter. How much does this help digestion by keeping the body surface cool and increasing the blood supply to the digestive organs? Usually children are given three meals a day at the school. They are asked to take a cup of milk only before leaving home, and on arrival at the school are given a breakfast of cereal, sugar, milk, bread and

butter. Dinner at noon consists of soup, potatoes and meat, occasionally eggs, vegetables, bread and butter, milk, and pudding. At three o'clock, after the rest period, they were given a cup of milk, and at five-thirty supper consisted of milk, bread and butter, light cake, or fruit—apples, bananas, prunes, and occasionally strawberries. There is little variation in the diet, except what is afforded by the different kinds of vegetables. The question of food values is somewhat modified by the question of cost. In children there is a natural tendency to an excess of carbohydrate food, which is, of course, the cheaper food, but an effort is made to keep the diet fairly balanced. Here butter comes high and so does milk, but fortunately we were able to get a good quality of pasteurized milk at a very special price. Beef, mutton, and occasionally fish furnish the albuminate portion. We always have some difficulty at first over this plain diet. These children have been accustomed to all kinds of truck instead of wholesome food, so after stimulating their appetites we have to educate their tastes. In considering the effect of this diet on the child we must also consider the effect of proper cooking; the effect of regular hours for work, rest, play, sleep, and meals; the effect of improved digestion and assimilation and increased tissue metabolism stimulated by the outdoor life and physical exercise; and the effect of regular attention to the excretions. The catering and cooking and personal hygiene of the children are under the supervision of the school nurse.

Sleep.—At first all these children look upon the two hours sleep after dinner as a great hardship. Few of them know anything about home discipline, except the kind that is shown by outbursts of anger and flogging. Their health has been broken not only by unwholesome food and poor cooking but also by the excitement and late hours of the street. The reclining chairs so commonly used in Europe for the rest period are not well adapted to give complete muscular relaxation, and therefore do not give complete rest. Here we used cots five feet long and three feet wide with woven wire springs and drop ends. These ends swing under, lying close to the wire spring when it is desired to set the cots aside. A double military blanket and small pillow completed this equipment. These were numbered and each child put away its own blanket and pillow in a locker under the supervision of the teacher and nurse. Careful supervision had to be exercised over the chil-

dren when they got into their cots, otherwise many were found in awkward and most uncomfortable positions, making impossible sound and refreshing sleep. Boots and hats only were removed and the child got into the blanket folded so that it had to lie on the right side. To get the children to sleep readily strict discipline and absolute quiet must be maintained. There may be difference of opinion whether from one to three o'clock is the best time for the rest period.

Clothing.—Last year our school was open for six months, May 13th to Nov. 15th and, during all that time the children were in their classes in the open without hat or extra wrap. In the ordinary school room, where the temperature is never allowed to drop below 70°, where every movement of air is carefully prevented, the child's system is not called upon to produce body heat for itself; heat is over-supplied artificially, and hence tissue metabolism is sluggish, assimilation and excretion are impaired, and the child's physical and mental activities clogged. It is far too common to find children in the regular class-room sitting beside hot radiators with extra wraps on, big sweater coats, sometimes two or three of them, and neck scarfs. Teachers will ask children to take off rubbers, but they do not think it is within their province to ask children to take off extra wraps in a hot room.

Where Open-Air Schools are continued through the winter the only extra clothing is the "Eskimo" suit, a combined toque and coat of flannel, and big felt boots over the ordinary ones. These are worn only in the severest winter weather.

Personal Cleanliness.—In our Forest School every child must have a tooth brush. We supply one if necessary. The tooth brushes were kept separate in the following way: Small staples large enough to hold a tooth brush were driven into a large smooth board at regular intervals and in several rows. Each staple was numbered and the number given to a child. This holder was placed on a wall within easy reach of every child. After each meal the children took their mugs, lined up according to number, and under the supervision of one of the larger pupils acting as monitor, came forward in order for their tooth brushes. They formed into several ranks, arms length apart, and boys passed along the ranks with pitchers of water, filling each child's mug. Then the nurse puts them through a thorough and systematic tooth brush drill. I think we claim priority for the tooth brush

drill in Toronto. Also in the nose-blowing drills. The children are supervised at the wash-up before meals. Each child brings its own towel. The tub bath is given once a week at least. We insist also on the necessary attention to teeth, mouth, and throat, eyes, and ears; all decayed teeth are filled, adenoids removed, and nose-breathing taught.

Results.—The gain in weight is but one evidence of an all round improvement in digestion, assimilation, and excretion; of wholesale food, and good cooking; of a regulated life of work, rest sleep, play, and meals; of personal cleanliness, oral hygiene, and all that goes to make up the out-door school life. We have changed the child with the dull, lustreless eyes, pale, pinched face, skinny arms, round shoulders, contracted chest, distended abdomen, and puny body into one that is alert, erect, active, bright-eyed, and vigorous. The natural comradeship between teacher and pupils in the Forest School helped a great deal to mould habits and morals and to develop character in children whose life had been mostly of a very sordid kind. Our highest aim is to give these children a new ambition, a desire to make good in life; a desire to be useful, efficient, independent; we aim to produce order out of chaos, a disciplined mind as well as a healthy body, moral habits as well as cleanliness, a courteous manner as well as a vigorous independence; to develop a little human kindness and higher ideals; to give them the light of a new dawn, a new hope.

One of the developments of open-air school work is the open-air class room.

Comparisons here give:

52% better attendance.

11.2% better results in promotions.

Varying results as to gain in weight.

MANUAL ARTS SECTION.

MAKING AND FIRING POTTERY—A NEW PHASE OF THE MANUAL ARTS.

BY C. MEDCALF, OTTAWA, ONT.

Since the introduction of manual training into the curriculum of the elementary schools wood has been the chief and in most cases the only medium used.

The modern tendency is, however, to enrich and broaden the scheme of school handwork by the inclusion of suitable work in a greater variety of materials and familiarity with more technical processes. In the senior grades a more or less industrial trend is being given to the work.

Some work has been attempted in sheet copper and brass, Venetian iron work, clay, etc. Clay modelling has long been recognized as a most valuable form of educational handwork, particularly in the kindergarten and the lower grades of the school, but there is little doubt that much more use might be made of this inexpensive and convenient material.

While a substitute for clay such as Plasticine has good points to recommend it to the busy teacher, particularly the grade teacher who necessarily can spare little time from the pressing calls of the many other school subjects for the preparation of clay, the initial cost of plasticine will prove an obstacle to its general use. Further, what would happen if the teacher destroyed all the work of the class at the end of each manual training lesson and yet this is what must and does happen at the end of a lesson in modelling when plasticine is used. Can we not picture the feelings of the child as he or she witnesses the destruction of the result of their painstaking efforts.

With clay all the best work of a class may be kept and placed on exhibition on the shelves of the class room, proving a source of gratification and encouragement to the scholar.

A NEW DEVELOPMENT.

My purpose is to bring before you the claims of a more recent development of clay work—pottery, that is new only in its application to the needs of the school as a medium of expression and of undoubted value in training the sense of form, touch, etc.

We usually think of all work with clay as belonging to the same group, but such is not really the case; for is not the representation of leaves, ornaments, etc., in the round in clay modelling as truly a means of artistic expression as drawing? While the making of tiles, fern pots and various objects of a useful nature in clay, afterwards made permanent by firing, is a craft, the craft of the Potter.

As with most, if not with all, handicrafts the artistic excellence of the final product must depend to a large extent on the artistic feeling and training of the worker. The lavish application of meaningless decoration, the misplacing of what would otherwise be quite admirable ornaments, point in no uncertain way to one of the outstanding merits of this school craft, i.e., the close correlation of the art and the handwork.

Correlation we have constantly in our minds as something to be striven after, but which we seldom achieve. To be worth while correlation must not be forced, it must be natural. A natural correlation strengthens and helps all the subjects so related.

The principles of design now have a real meaning to the pupil when the finished drawing represents something actually to be applied to the decoration of his work in clay. Children are all alike in that the abstract exercise does not really interest them in the same way as the preparation of a design intended for a definite purpose. The increased interest brings forth greater effort and so more real progress is made.

Whether the design is prepared in the Art room or in the room where it is proposed to do the pottery and under the direction of the teacher of handwork, it is important that a drawing be always made by the pupil before attempting the practical work otherwise the results will be unsatisfactory and not infrequently grotesque.

KIND OF CLAY USED.

While a natural clay is found in almost any locality, such clay would require a good deal of troublesome preparation, i.e., removing the grit, etc., before being in a fit condition to make good pottery. The firing point is much higher in some clays than in others and it is of course important in school pottery work that we use a clay firing satisfactorily at a moderately low temperature.

A suitable clay properly prepared can be bought at almost any pottery at one-half cent per pound upwards. The Western Stoneware Company, Monmouth, Ill., supply a very good clay for pottery purposes, a clay firing satisfactorily at cone 0. 4.

EQUIPMENT.

Apart from the kiln the necessary equipment need be but slight and the cost trivial. A satisfactory damp closet to store the partially finished work between lessons can be made out of any cupboard or even a box by covering the shelf or bottom with a layer of plaster of paris about an inch and a half thick. The plaster when set will absorb enough water to keep the clay in working condition for a long period.

A plaster of paris "bat" about eight or nine inches in diameter makes a very satisfactory surface to model upon.

The plaster "bat" should be placed in water for a moment before using, the water absorbed prevents the plaster drying out the clay and also the clay does not stick to it as it does to oilcloth, wood or even slate. The circular bat can also be readily turned about and the contour of the work judged from all sides.

A fairly large galvanized iron pail with a cover makes a satisfactory receptacle in which to keep the general supply of clay.

Few tools other than the thumb and fingers will be found necessary, a useful tool, however, will be found in the boxwood modeling tool with a wire loop at one end, this is very useful in trimming vase and bowl forms to a desirable thinness and smoothness.

HOW TO MAKE A TILE.

The tile naturally suggests itself as the first exercise or problem attempted, it lends itself to some simple incised decoration and

moreover in the building of a tile we learn how to manipulate the clay, how to get that compact layer of clay, of even thickness and density that will not crack and fall apart in the firing.

The clay being in good condition, i.e., not too dry so as to be brittle and not too wet as to be at all sticky, we make rolls about half an inch thick using the fingers somewhat spread and not the palms of the hands. Handle the clay as little as possible, too much handling dries and makes it brittle. The coils can then be placed so as to form the outline of our tile, care being taken to make the square so formed slightly larger than we wish our finished tile to be. Fill in the space with small pieces of clay, being careful to get a compact body. The tile should be turned over and smoothed until quite level on both sides. The edges can then be trimmed off with a knife or modelling tool and the design transferred to the clay.

The incised or cut-in pattern is the most simple method of decorating pottery. A butcher's skewer or a three inch wire nail with one end sharpened to a chisel point makes a useful tool with which to carve the design upon the clay. The clay should be what is called leather hard; that means that it has been allowed to stiffen by losing some of its moisture, but if too dry it will not carve well.

Care must be taken to keep the incisions of equal depth. When finished and before allowing to dry out, the carved surface should be lightly brushed over with a fairly soft brush and water; this slightly rounds off the sharp corners which, when the tile is glazed, causes the glaze to cover the surface more evenly. If the corners were left sharp the stiff flowing glaze would not cover them and they would show white through the coloured body of the glaze.

BOWLS AND VASES.

The method generally followed in building vessels of circular form such as bowls, vases, etc., is essentially the one used by the Indians and primitive peoples, i.e., building up the form by means of coils of clay.

To acquire the extreme dexterity necessary to successfully manipulate the potter's wheel requires long and persistent practice and is beyond the capacity of the child.

The bottom of a vase is made in practically the same way as the tile. In trimming up to the desired diameter, always leave it slightly larger than the base of the vessel is intended to be when finished, as clay shrinks considerably in drying and again in firing—usually from ten to twelve per cent. A coil of clay about half an inch in diameter is laid upon the outer edge of the bottom. It is very important that the coil be securely welded to the base. Flatten the top edge of each coil slightly with the finger before adding the next coil. Weld each coil securely one to the other and if necessary fill in any hollows with small pieces of clay. If this is not done the ware will crack and perhaps fall apart in the firing.

The vase will now have the general proportions desired, but will be crude and uneven in finish and much thicker than is desirable or necessary.

After stiffening, by being allowed to dry somewhat, the vase can now be trimmed and scraped until symmetrical, the top edge and the base trued up. It is sometimes well for the pupils to cut out of fairly stiff paper the shape of one side of the vase to be used as a templet, but generally it will be found that results are equally good without such aids and the training to the eye greater.

After applying the decoration the work should be smoothed over with brush and water and finally with the fingers well moistened with water; this brings the finer clay to the surface and gives a smoother finish.

After drying thoroughly the vase is ready for the first firing, called the biscuit firing.

GLAZES.

To give a finish to the ware and a surface that will not soil readily and be absorbent it is necessary that the pottery be given that glossy surface which may be of varying colours and shades. This is called glazing.

The operations of glazing and firing require a certain amount of technical knowledge, the pupils will, however, be able to do some of the work connected with these operations, such as the grinding and mixing of the glaze. Each pupil should at some time also have the opportunity of applying the glaze to a piece of

his own work, see the kiln fired and so become familiar with the technical processes, so that each may have a clear idea of the fundamental features of each stage from the manipulation of the raw clay to the final production of the finished vessel, an acquaintance and knowledge of an important industry—ceramics.

After a little experience in teaching pottery a great variety of useful objects suggest themselves as being within the scope of the children's powers; ware that will combine the desirable features of being at the same time "useful and ornamental," encouraging art and incidentally the adornment of the home.

Let the pottery be substantial making no pretence to a semblance of the more delicate china and porcelain and yet neither should it be so crudely finished as to suggest the work of a prehistoric people.

NOTE.—Messrs. Caulkins and Company, Detroit, Mich., make a pottery kiln which has proved quite successful in operation in many schools in the United States.

SOME METHODS OF TEACHING ART IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

BY GEORGE W. HOFFERD, M.A., TORONTO.

One of the chief problems in education to-day is that of method. The crowded curriculum demands the very best methods in order that the subject matter may be covered in the allotted time. Especially is this true of the courses in art in our High Schools, because art power is very difficult to teach.

We are fully convinced that pupils do not learn to draw in the natural way in which they take to eating, creeping and talking, but rather that, with few exceptions, they need to be taught step by step how to gain a clear view, an exact measurement and a precise statement. To attain these objects we require good methods. These will encourage subtlety of sight, delicacy and refinement of drawing, as opposed to the careless dash and false effect which result from bad methods or no method at all.

Art is on the course because of its educational value, and, if properly taught, it has a very great educational value altogether apart from the subject learned. It develops: (1) Reasoning from effect to cause; (2) the power of analysis; (3) a love of the beautiful; (4) a tenderness and susceptibility of mind; (5) habits of neatness; (6) manual skill as the result of actual practice in doing things.

To do this the instruction must be formulated upon a distinctly psychological and educational basis. It must start with the assumption that all art work is in its nature the product of a creative activity, and the law of apperception must be so applied that the teacher will see the thing he is teaching in its relation to all which has gone before and to all which has to follow. Moreover, I believe that the instructor who does not remain an art student will soon lose his power to teach well.

The teacher's methods should awaken and foster a love for drawing in even the indifferent pupil—the pupil who thinks he cannot draw. To do this he needs to know the mind of his pupil and then excite interest and retain it by introducing variety in the work presented. The exercises should be well graded, as far as possible, so as to encourage individuality by compelling the

child to exercise his judgment to the utmost of his powers. I would always impress upon the class the utility of the training afforded.

Do not unduly depress the pupil by telling him bluntly that his work is bad or no good. Rather first have him see the good points, and then follow this up by showing him where he has failed to express the truth in his drawing. This method of criticising an honest effort will put the pupil into a better frame of mind for seeing the faults, and the word of encouragement may inspire him with a desire to try harder, so that all his drawing may be pronounced good by the teacher.

To begin the work of the first year, I would give a few lessons in lettering, because this is knowledge which the pupil can apply at once in his science notes, manual training and note-book work generally.

I begin with the "straight line capital letters" because they are simple in form. Make clear to the class by blackboard illustrations that each letter is made with straight lines; that all are the same height; that all are the same width except I, M, W, the last two being nearly double the width of the others and I merely a straight line. Show clearly that upright lines are vertical and parallel, and all horizontal lines are parallel. Then, emphasize the spacing of the letters, so that the class may realize that the distance is the same between all letters, etc. This is one of the merits of this system of lettering. As the lesson progresses, make a blackboard summary, which the pupil will take down on art paper for reference, as follows:—

To do good lettering we must observe (1) to have all letters the same height; (2) to have the spaces between the letters equal; (3) to have upright lines vertical, and horizontal lines horizontal; (4) to have all letters the same width except M, W, I.

During the next lesson the teacher and class put into practice what has been learned. I usually print all the letters of the alphabet on the blackboard between guide lines, putting M, W, I last. The class copy this neatly, and at the end of the lesson I collect all the work. Before the next lesson I classify the work into (1) good, (2) fair, (3) bad. To open the next lesson I return the good and the fair and then take a few minutes to show why the rest are classed "bad." Then I hand those back to be done again for approval before the next lesson.

During this second lesson exercises should now be given to print in "straight line capital letters," such expressions as (1) The Principal's Office; (2) Oakwood Collegiate Institute; (3) James Smith, Esq., etc.

While these exercises are being done, the teacher should help the slow and careless pupils individually, so as to encourage them to raise the standard of their work.

A third lesson might be spent in showing the class by illustrations that these "straight-line capitals" may be made the basis of all styles. They may slant to the left or the right or remain vertical. They may be made round, angular, blocked or decorated.

Have each pupil print his name and date and school by slanting the letters either to right or left. Near the close of the period compare two or three of the best pupils' work, and get the judgment of the class upon the merits and demerits.

Follow this with a homework exercise in which you give the pupils liberty to use the slant to the right or to the left or the vertical. I usually give a rhyme of four or five lines.

In a fourth lesson introduce a simple form of small letters based on the oval. Teach a few of the typical letters as to height, spacing, etc., and the exceptions. Then the pupils may make the whole alphabet themselves and show them for approval.

Advise the pupils to use these in their note-books for headings, labels, etc., and ask the science and manual training masters to encourage their use. There should be a definite understanding between the art and manual training masters, so that they will work in harmony.

In four or five definite lessons in some form of free-hand lettering, such as outlined, a very desirable judgment and control of the pencil will be acquired, that will have a wide range of use in other lines of work.

At the beginning of the winter term, I again spend three or four lessons on teaching another form of simple lettering, such as the vertical and inclined Gothic capitals, coupled with the Reinhardt small letter. These are the letters commonly used now by trained draughtsmen. Emphasize how this system may be adapted to fill a big space or a small space and still be held clear and legible. Stress the characteristics which make this look well, and since so much depends upon uniform slant, it is profitable to have pupils rule half a page or more with oblique lines, quarter of an inch

apart, crossing the horizontal line on which the printing is to be placed. These oblique lines help the pupil very much to judge uniform slant, and give him a standard with which to compare each letter. During the rest of the year encourage the lettering used by draughtsmen. But some pupils may find out a fancy way of their own. Give liberties, and accept this as long as it is well done.

This might be followed by the course in geometric problems. When beginning this work, print out the first two or three problems on the blackboard, and carefully make the construction required by aid of ruler, compass and triangle, with the necessary explanation. Now erase, and have the pupils do the same thing as an exercise. For example, to divide a given line, A, B, into any number of equal parts. After a lesson or two the class should be able to do well two or three such problems in each half-hour. During the first ten minutes of the lesson, work out two or three such problems carefully on the board, then erase and have pupils work these out for themselves during the rest of the period. The teacher will supervise during the rest of the period. This works well.

I also begin the work of the second year and the work of the Middle School with a few lessons in lettering with the pen. Give them such work as making titles of books and notices where judgment of symmetry, choice, size and beauty of letter formation are important. Give the pupils the exercise and then let each work it out in his own way. Give individual suggestions and criticisms. In the Middle School I also give a few lessons on script and monograms. Classes get a good opportunity to apply this in their course in pictorial and ornamental design.

PICTORIAL AND ORNAMENTAL DESIGN.

This is best taken up during the last term of the school year, after model drawing, drawing from nature and the geometrical work has been taken up. This is difficult work and presupposes a knowledge of natural and geometrical forms. It affords a further training in the judgment of proportion and gives both teacher and pupil a better chance to detect mistakes. Exactness is more in evidence.

I prefer to begin design by using geometrical figures. These give the pupils a good idea of regularity of form, geometrical balance and how to cover a wide space. Have the pupils rule out spaces, say 4" x 6", on the centre of the paper, and rule this surface with light lines into a geometrical network to serve as a groundwork for the design. To do this, careful planning and skilful use of the pencil, ruler, triangles and compass are required. Fill in this network with balanced geometrical forms which have previously been studied so as to be satisfying to the eye. Add a colour scheme to enrich the surface. Pupils like doing this decorative work, as if it were by instinct.

A few units of patterns based upon geometrical forms is all that can be given in a limited time to show the principles of construction. See that all pupils gain some idea from this work of the geometrical basis on which design is constructed. Following this the class must be led to see that the general scheme of decorative treatment relies more upon flower forms and foliage forms than upon strictly geometrical design for the ideas which the repeated patterns carry out. I use samples of wall paper to show this. These, of course, are too elaborate to set up as a standard for pupils. For their practices have each pupil plan some decorative scheme based upon a natural form studied in the nature drawing course. The leaf of the maple or the Virginia creeper serves well. Encourage individuality, and put up for exhibition half a dozen or more samples of the best work of the class. This serves as a powerful stimulus to all.

The question arises, should the method of representing form by means of outline, or representing form by mass be used in this work? I do not hesitate to say that the method by outline is the better. This was the prehistoric method, and to-day, also, we grasp more easily what is represented by an outline than a drawing in mass or silhouette merely. The pencil, our best and most convenient drawing medium, lends itself well to this method. Further, it is an indisputable fact that the exact definition of form is determined by contour and not by mass.

To repeat a simple design in covering a surface some teachers use tracing paper. I do not adopt this practice. I have the pupil first decide upon his unit and then in every respect draw it afresh. This affords good training. After the outline drawings are made, then a colour scheme is planned and added to give mass and rich-

ness to the simple decorative scheme. During the second year course extend this same method to more elaborate designs such as conventionalizing leaves, flowers and fruit forms. Use the pen with Indian ink as well as the pencil for outlines. Design vase forms and work by conventionalizing some natural form previously studied.

In the Middle School course, I use the brush as well as the pen to make outlines. This requires greater skill than the other instruments, and a good brush; and some pupils can succeed in getting a very expressive and artistic effect. It is well to study some Japanese work from this point of view. The Japanese are able to take advantage of the great flexibility of the brush and make the most of it. The pupils also soon find out that the brush has not the limitations of the stiff point.

After the pupils get some control of the brush, then as further exercises in brush stroke practice, have them do some decorative work by the mass method. This is a good means of training the hand in delicacy and precision of touch, and it conciliates design work with other mass drawings of their course, as, for example, trees in landscapes.

Study a few ornamented fabrics and pieces of carpet with the class, explaining that designers who plan these usually use the mass method, and must be very familiar with flowers to introduce conventionalism to so great a degree.

Our methods in design should cultivate in pupils individuality of thought, and skill to express this thought under the proper restraining influences of law, order and fitness. If we can do this, then the ordinary boy or girl will be qualified to appreciate the various artistic products with which he comes into daily contact.

DRAWING FROM PLANTS.

This is not work which should be taken up with pupils at the beginning of the first year. Model drawing and some study of light and shade should precede this, so that pupils may be trained to some extent to draw what they see. Do not cripple or hamper them either beforehand by rules of perspective. Simply lead them to draw what they see by judging proportion and direction, as they did in model drawing. In plant study the tendency is to be careless about proportion, relation, grace and beauty of lines. Hold

them severely to these things. Do much individual teaching, particularly testing the pupil's drawing as to proportion. Encourage merit, but allow nothing for line work where proportion is wrong.

Let the first exercise be something simple, such as two or three leaves on a small stem placed against a light background clearly before the pupils. Later larger sprays, and plants with several branches, may be attempted. These make good problems for graphic representation, and, if well encouraged, pupils draw them with enthusiasm.

When beginning such lessons, the teacher, after selecting the specimen, must first ask himself, "Is this plant to be studied for its movement, for its form, for its values, for its colour, for its details, or for its general effect?"

Then, with a definite aim in mind, suited to the capability of the class, he must next consider what medium of expression should be used. For example, in studying the golden rod, aiming to show its general effect, water colour on our authorised paper may well be chosen as the medium. If the aim be to express form only, then a flat wash of ink may be chosen, etc. The next step, after properly placing the specimens, is to direct the attention of the pupils by proper questioning, and thus enable them to see what you wish them to express in order to arrive at the desired result. Then the requisite amount of space demanded for the drawing must be determined. After the pupils have expressed the teacher's aim in the drawing, each pupil should ask himself, "Where can I place my name or initials upon the sheet in order to add to the beauty of the sheet by perfecting the balance of it?"

Plant studies, thus pursued, would produce skill, insight and appreciation of nature's forms.

Hear Tennyson speak:

"Flower in the crannied wall,
If I pluck you out of the crannies,
I hold you here, root and all, in my hand,
Little flower—but if I could understand
What you are, root and all, and all in all,
I should know what God and man is."

CONTINUATION SECTION.

THE TEACHER'S CALLING.

AN ABSTRACT OF AN ADDRESS BY J. M. SMITH, PRESIDENT.

Some one has questioned whether the work of the teacher can as yet be designated by the term "Profession." Profession in its broadest sense means (1) A widespread need on the part of the public; (2) A widespread demand for that need to be fulfilled; (3) A carefully prepared and trained body to carry on the work. It is evident from an educational standpoint the need has always existed; the demand for primary and secondary education is growing. But until recent years, owing to the great diversity in the character of our schools and the necessity of advancing cautiously, we could not claim on the part of the teaching body as a whole necessary academic or professional attainments. Now the trend to higher qualifications is so marked that I believe the last named mark of a true profession is being fulfilled and we as teachers in this country may be looked upon as following a profession second to none in importance in the wide world.

The influence of the teacher for good upon the social and national life of our country is now universally recognized to be greater than any other. The teacher is constantly engaged in turning the instincts and activities of children along those lines from which they are supposed to emerge ready to take up the duties of life and fit themselves for any special work for which they feel they are adapted.

The business men of this country, and the other professions, are viewing the work of the teacher at the present time with more sympathy and respect than ever before. They are honouring his experience and professional attainments more than they have done in the past. This is encouraging. It should encourage us to renew our efforts to show the public that their confidence in us is not misplaced.

The live, up-to-date teacher must lose no opportunity to make his influence felt in shaping educational policy. Teachers should thoroughly understand the system under which they work that

they may at any time be able to suggest changes beneficial to the system and to oppose changes which in their estimation are harmful to the cause of education. The work of the teacher involves being thoroughly alive to present-day problems and taking a part, small though it may be, in their solution.

There are many things we as teachers can do to enhance our position in the eyes of the public. We can show more of that broad, true, professional spirit than teachers have been inclined to exhibit in the past. We can use our influence to make the profession a life-work, not a stepping stone to the other professions. We can put forth our influence for the maintenance of a high standard of qualification and we can protest when the unqualified are allowed even a temporary place in our ranks.

Some of the objects teachers should aim at are briefly summarized here:—

1. We should press steadily on in the struggle for better remuneration, since ours is still the least paid of the professions.

2. We should continue to press the claims of a superannuation scheme upon the Department.

3. We should support a good Canadian magazine in order to secure exchange of ideas among teachers.

4. We should be present at, and take a part in, meetings of the School Board and secure their co-operation in advancing the interests of the School.

5. We should constantly aim to strengthen our organizations, both county and provincial, for the better study of educational problems to the end that our work may meet with the best success.

6. As teachers we should strive diligently to perform our work to the best of our ability. We may have periods of depression and periods of gloom; but through it all comes the assurance that our work, viewed from whatever standpoint you will, is an important one and worthy of our best efforts. The teacher who earnestly strives to do his duty has his reward in seeing those who have been influenced by his efforts grow up about him, taking their place in the social, business, industrial and professional life of our nation.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING SECTION.

THE PROGRESS OF SIMPLIFIED SPELLING.

BY JOHN DEARNESS, M.A.

In Canada sympathy with this reform and knowledge of its value are gradually spreading but during the year there has been no striking event in its progress to record.

Among important events elsewhere it may be mentioned that twenty-one British societies were represented at a great educational conference in London, Eng., in January last. Ex-U.S. Ambassador Viscount Bryce, delivered the opening address, taking for his theme "Salient Educational Issues." The two he placed emphasis on were Moral Training based on religious principles and the Rationalization of English Spelling. He believed that the latter might be accomplished in England at least before agreement is reached on the first-named problem. He seemed to think that when the British people begin to realize that scientific spelling would be worth millions as a time-saver the reform will make rapid headway.

The British Spelling Society is supporting the movement for a Royal Commission to consider the whole subject of standard spelling and standard speech. A monster petition to the Government with that end in view is in course of preparation. Plans are also being made for another international conference on the improvement of spelling, to be held this year. Some opposition to the simplification of spelling determined by one of the Australian Education Departments was heard at first. It seems to have died out, judging by the silence of the educational journals on the subject now. The satisfaction with the simplification of Dutch spelling in South Africa is preparing the way for similar improvement in English as soon as there is authoritative agreement upon the method.

In the United States there seems to be more foolish and trying-to-be-humorous criticism of improvement than elsewhere, which may be due to shallower scholarship of some of their journalists

and school officers. But in spite of the criticism or on account of it much progress is being made. For example, in Kansas last month a resolution prevailed nearly unanimously in a body of over 600 teachers that "We the teachers of the Southern Kansas Teachers' Association at our annual meeting have duly considered the subject of Simplified Spelling and are convinced that thoro reform of English orthography has become a matter of vital importance to the hundreds of thousands of children in our public schools." After reciting reasons in a lengthy preamble the resolution closed with a respectful, earnest and urgent recommendation to the Kansas State School Book Commission to adopt the S. S. B. simplifications in the school books.

A Canadian-trained teacher, Dr. W. W. Charters, is making good pedagogically in the State of Missouri and one of the ways is by service on a committee of University and Normal School Officers who are directing a campaign for better spelling in that State. A committee of State Commissioners, College presidents and State Superintendents, with President Foster of Reed College as chairman, has been appointed to devise means for the conversion of the people of the Northwestern States to the approval and practice of rational spelling.

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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

Fifty-Fourth Annual Convention

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

HELD IN

TORONTO

On the 5th, 6th, 7th and 8th April, 1915



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7

P R O C E E D I N G S
O F T H E
Fifty=Fourth Annual Convention
O F T H E
O N T A R I O E D U C A T I O N A L A S S O C I A T I O N

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 6TH, 1915.

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO,
April 6th, 1915.

The Association met in Convocation Hall. President Summerby took the chair at 8 o'clock p.m.

Rev. Alfred Hall conducted the devotional exercises by reading a portion of Scripture from Proverbs, 8th chapter, and by leading in prayer.

Moved by Mr. J. Dearness, seconded by Mr. C. G. Fraser,

That as the Minutes have been printed and distributed among the members, they be considered as read and are hereby confirmed.
—Carried.

A letter from Mrs. Ord-Marshall, Honorary-Secretary of the League of Empire, London, England, was read, and is as follows:

“19th March, 1915.

“Sir,—We are glad to report to you that the Second Annual Meeting of the Teachers' Associations throughout the Empire took place on the 13th July last. A report of the meeting is forwarded to you by this same mail.

“The next Annual Meeting of the Imperial Union of Teachers will take place on July 17th, 1915, and, although the numbers attending may be influenced by the grave conditions now affecting the whole Empire, we think that these very conditions make it the more desirable that counsel should be taken together by those working for the education of the young.

"It is proposed, therefore, that the principal matter for consideration shall be 'the influence of education on National character with special reference to the great international and imperial events of the past year.' The final programme for the Imperial Education Conference in Toronto in 1916, so kindly arranged by the Hon. the Minister of Education for Ontario, will also be presented to the meeting.

"We should be very glad if any members of your Association will do us the honour to be present. After the meeting on July 17th there will be a series of visits to historical places and houses such as takes place each successive year. Through the hospitality thus offered by members and friends of the League much that is of interest may be seen which is not available to the general public.

"I have the honour to be,

"Sir,

"Your obedient servant,

"E. M. ORD-MARSHALL,

"Hon. Secretary.

"The General Secretary,

"Ontario Educational Association,

"Toronto, Canada."

Hon. R. A. Pyne, Minister of Education, gave an address of welcome.

President Summerby addressed the Association on "The War, the Farm and the School."

Hon. Sir Geo. E. Foster, K.C.M.G., Minister of Trade and Commerce, addressed the Association on "Women as Empire Builders."

Mr. Wm. Scott, Chairman of the Superannuation Committee, reported as follows:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SUPERANNUATION FOR THE YEAR 1915.

"The first action taken by the O. E. A. with reference to Superannuation was at the Easter meeting, in 1901, when Mr. J. H. Putman, of Ottawa, moved that in the opinion of the Association it would be in the interests of the teachers of Ontario to have established some scheme of Superannuation under the control of the Education Department. This motion was seconded by Mr. E. T. Young, of Hamilton, and carried.

“Accordingly a committee was appointed to consider the matter.

“In 1902 Mr. Hughes, the Chairman, reported concerning the pension schemes for teachers, showing that at that time the following countries of Europe had such schemes: Austria-Hungary, Holland, Belgium, France, Italy, Greece, Portugal, Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia, and Great Britain, and pointing out that only a few States in the United States of America had such a scheme.

“This report also said that the Hon. Dr. Ross, Premier of Ontario, had informed the committee that he proposed to introduce next year a general scheme for the Superannuation of Government employees, and that it was his intention to include in that scheme a provision for assisting in the Superannuation of teachers.

“In 1903 Mr. Hughes reported that the Government did not propose to introduce a Civil Service Superannuation Scheme during the session of 1903. The committee was re-appointed to urge a scheme of Superannuation for teachers.

“In 1904 Mr. Putman reported for the Superannuation Committee verbally, and moved that it be discharged.—Carried.

“A new committee was, however, appointed at that meeting, of whom Dr. Burwash, Mr. Putman, Dr. Embree, Mr. R. A. Gray, and Principal Scott are still serving.

“In 1905 this Committee reported a Scheme which has formed the basis of all the discussion since. It is printed in the Report of the Proceedings of the O. E. A. for 1905 (page 128), and in the report of the year 1906.

“In 1906 the committee was enlarged by the addition of other members of the Association, and a motion was passed to pay the travelling expenses of the out of town members, by the Association.

“The subsequent history of Superannuation may be briefly summarized by stating that the efforts of the Committee were at first confined to overcoming the inertia of the Government, and in 1908 it was able to report that \$1,000 was to be inserted in the Estimates to be used in investigating the Scheme which had been submitted to it two years before.

“In 1909 the Committee could only report that the Government had at length appointed a qualified actuary to investigate the scheme submitted to it.

“In 1910 the Actuary had not finished his report.

“In 1911 the Committee was able to report that ‘the actuary was of the opinion that the scheme outlined is a workable one, and

that it was worthy of confidence in so far as new members entering the profession were concerned.' In 1911 the committee prepared a Memorial and presented it to the Government. This Memorial which states the arguments which from time to time your Committee urged upon the Government, is printed in the minutes of the Report of the Proceedings of the O. E. A. for 1912 (page 9).

"In 1913 the Committee reported the result of its meeting with the Minister of Education and the Provincial Treasurer; but before the results of this conference could be ascertained the Provincial Treasurer died.

"In 1914 the Minister of Education announced to this Association that he would have a scheme of Superannuation prepared, to be submitted to the Legislative Assembly at its next session.

"At the close of the last Easter meeting, on behalf of the Minister of Education, Dr. Colquhoun summoned a number of members of the Association, representing both teachers and trustees, to consult with him regarding the features which should be embodied in a Scheme of Superannuation. The result of their labours was submitted to the Government actuary and resulted in the drafting of a bill which was submitted to the Legislature and given its first reading in the closing hours of the late session.

"That the work which has so far been accomplished may be carried to a successful issue, your committee suggests the appointment of the following as a committee to whom the interests of the Superannuation Scheme may be entrusted for the coming year:

COMMITTEE.

"Miss Esther Abram, McKeough, Chatham; Miss Hannah E. Heakes, Kindergarten Directress, Dewson St. School, Toronto; Miss C. A. Winters, Pembroke; Miss A. E. Marty, M.A., Ottawa; Mr. James Buchanan, Elmvale; Mr. A. Werner, Elmvale; Mr. C. A. B. Brown, Toronto; Mr. Charles G. Fraser, Manning Ave. School, Toronto; Mr. Henry Ward, Toronto; Mr. W. F. Moore, Dundas; Mr. James D. Denny, M.A., Cambridge St. School, Ottawa; Mr. R. A. Gray, Principal Oakwood Collegiate Institute; Mr. E. P. Gavin, B.A., Windsor; Mr. T. A. Kirkeconnell, B.A., Lindsay; Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Hamilton; Principal Scott, B.A., Toronto; W. F. Chapman, B.A., Toronto; N. W. Campbell, B.A., Durham; John Dearness, B.A., London; J. F. Power, B.A., Toronto."

Mr. Scott moved, seconded by the Rev. James Buchanan,—That the report of the Superannuation Committee be adopted with the

understanding that all the active members of the present Committee be added to the Committee named in the report.—Carried.

The nomination of officers resulted in the following officers being elected:

President—Chas. G. Fraser, Toronto.

General Secretary—Robert Willson Doan, Toronto.

Treasurer—Henry Ward, B.A., Toronto.

Mr. R. D. Fairbairn extended an invitation from the Advisory Industrial Committee and from the Chairman of the Board of Education, Toronto, to hold the next Convention of the Ontario Educational Association in the new Technical School building.

The Secretary presented the Treasurer's report and the accompanying Auditors' report.

Moved by Mr. J. Dearness, seconded by Mr. C. G. Fraser,—That the Auditors' report be received and adopted, and that the President name a Committee to give some suitable and tangible expression of the appreciation of this Association, of the long and satisfactory discharge of the important duties which the retiring Treasurer, Mr. W. J. Hendry, has rendered this Association.

The President named Messrs. Dearness, Fraser and Doan, a Committee for the above purpose.

Moved by Mr. W. F. Chapman, seconded by Mr. Wm. Pakenham,—That, whereas the Janet Carnochan Chapter, Imperial Order of the Daughters of the Empire, having so heartily co-operated with the Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association, in arranging the programme by obtaining the services of Hon. Sir Geo. E. Foster, and, also through the National President of the I.O.D.E., Mrs. A. E. Gooderham, giving a delightful musicale and reception to this Association, we, the members of the Ontario Educational Association, desire to place on record our grateful appreciation of the kindness of the Hon. Geo. E. Foster in taking time from his many duties at the capital to give us an inspiring address on "Women as Empire Builders," and also of the splendid services rendered this Association by the Imperial Order of the Daughters of the Empire.—Carried.

After the singing of the national anthem the President declared the meeting closed.

After the adjournment a large number of the members attended the reception given by Dr. Falconer on behalf of the authorities of the University, in the large room adjoining Convocation Hall.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7TH, 1915.

The Association met in Convocation Hall at 8 o'clock p.m., President Summerby in the chair.

Rev. Dr. Workman conducted the devotional exercises by reading a portion of Scripture and leading in prayer.

Dr. J. W. Robertson addressed the Association on "Education for Occupation in Ontario."

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., addressed the Association on the Ontario Teachers' Alliance.

Rev. John MacNeill, B.A., addressed the Association on "Higher Patriotism."

Moved by R. W. Doan, seconded by Henry Ward, B.A.,

(1) That the next meeting of this Association be held in Toronto during the Easter holidays in 1916, and that the decision as to the local place of meeting be left with the Board of Directors;

(2) That the thanks of the Association be tendered to Hon. Dr. Pyne, Hon. Sir Geo. E. Foster, Dr. J. W. Robertson and Rev. John MacNeill for the inspiring addresses which they have delivered during the Sessions of this Convention, to President Summerby for the courteous and able manner in which he has discharged the duties of President during the past year, and to the University authorities for the kind attention they have paid to the comfort and convenience of the members of the Association during the Sessions of the Convention.—Carried.

The Special Committee to whom the duty of arranging for the presentation of an address, accompanied by a suitable testimonial, to Mr. W. J. Hendry, who is retiring from the position of Treasurer on account of ill-health, reported as follows:

"Your Committee appointed last night to draft a suitable expression of appreciation of the many years of service which Mr. W. J. Hendry has rendered in the interests of our Association, beg to suggest the presentation of a mahogany arm-chair, and an address suitably engrossed."

At the request of the President, in the absence of Principal Hutton, Dr. James L. Hughes made announcements in connection with the League of Empire.

The meeting closed after the singing of "God Save the King."

After the adjournment the officers of the Canadian Branch of the League of Empire held a reception which was largely attended and thoroughly enjoyed by the members of the Association.

MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT.

APRIL 6TH.

The College and Secondary School Department met in the West Hall of the main building of the University of Toronto, the chairman, Dr. Needler, presiding.

The minutes of the two sessions of 1915, as printed in the annual report of the Association, were confirmed.

The chairman announced that owing to the absence of Principal Hutton from the city and for other causes, the executive committee had decided to combine the two sessions of this year into one.

Dr. Alexander gave a brief report of the committee on the curriculum of secondary school studies, reporting further progress.

It was moved by Mr. Hogarth, seconded by Dean Pakenham, that the committee be re-appointed for the coming year with power to add to their number.—Carried.

It was moved by the Secretary, seconded by Dr. M. W. Wallace, that the report prepared by Dean Coleman and Professor McPherson be printed in the annual proceedings.—Carried.

The election of officers then took place, with results as follows:

Chairman—A. H. McDougall, B.A., LL.D., Ottawa.

Vice-Chairman—W. J. Alexander, M.A., Ph.D., University of Toronto.

Secretary—G. W. Keith, B.A., Jameson Ave. Collegiate Inst., Toronto.

Directors:

Modern Languages—A. E. Lang, M. A.

Natural Science—Arthur Smith, B.A.

Classical—Chas. L. Barnes, B.A.

Mathematical and Physical—Charles Auld, B.A.

English and History—W. E. Macpherson, M.A.

Commercial—William Ward, B.A., B.Pæd.

Continuation—C. Summers.

High School Principal—E. E. Snider, B.A.

The chairman then gave a short address on the military movement in the University of Toronto.

Dr. Sandiford gave his address on "Liberty in the School," and was succeeded by Principal Hagarty, who spoke of "Recent

Developments in the Cadet Movement in the High Schools of Canada."

It was moved by Dean Pakenham, seconded by Dr. Wallace, that these two excellent addresses be printed in the annual proceedings of the Association.—Carried.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. C. FERGUSON,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The meeting opened at 10.30 a.m. Owing to the absence, through illness, of the President, Mr. A. J. Husband, the Vice-President, Miss M. E. T. Addison, took the chair.

Mr. W. H. Williams read a paper on the Junior Matriculation papers in French Composition of 1913 and 1914. This was followed by some discussion, and a committee was appointed to draft a resolution on this subject to report at a later meeting. Prof. MacGillivray read a paper on "Germany's Contribution to Civilization."

APRIL 7TH.

A joint meeting was held with the English and History Section. Owing to the absence of Dr. Snow, through illness, Dr. Edgar took his place on the programme with an address on "Poetry and War."

APRIL 8TH.

The meeting opened at 10.00 a.m., with Prof. MacGillivray in the chair. Mr. Robins read a paper on "Conditions in Germany before the War." This was followed by a paper on "The New France" by Mr. A. F. B. Clarke, and one by Prof. A. H. Young on "Madame de Maintenon."

Professors Cameron and Horning were appointed Auditors for the current year. A resolution was carried that the sum of \$150.00 from the funds of the Modern Language Section be donated to the University of Toronto Base Hospital and the Queen's University Stationary Hospital for Overseas Service,—the amount to be divided equally between them. Prof. A. E. Lang was appointed

to represent the Section on the Board of Directors for the O. E. A. The Committee on French examination papers for 1914 brought in a report which was adopted by the Section, with instructions that copies be sent to President Falconer, Principal Gordon and Mr. R. W. Anglin, M.A., Secretary of the Matriculation Board.

The Nominating Committee, consisting of Mr. Williams, Miss A. E. Marty, Mr. A. F. B. Clarke and Miss Whyte, brought in the following report, which was adopted unanimously:—

Officers for 1915-16:

President—Miss M. E. T. Addison, Annesley Hall, Toronto.

Vice-President—Prof. J. Home Cameron, University College, Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer—Prof. A. E. Lang, Victoria College, Toronto.

Councillors—Miss M. I. Williams, Peterboro', Ont.; Miss M. Hawkins, Harbord St. Collegiate Institute, Toronto; Miss E. Balmer, 131 Grace St., Toronto; Mr. E. S. Hogarth, Collegiate Institute, Hamilton, Ont.; Mr. W. E. Hanna, Oakwood Coll. Inst., Toronto; Mr. F. H. Clarke, Oakwood Coll. Inst., Toronto.

MINUTES OF THE NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

APRIL 7TH.

The Science Section of the O. E. A. met in the Biological Building, Wednesday, April 7th, 1915, President F. J. Johnston in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved. The Treasurer's report was read and approved.

The President's address took the form of a historical review of the growth and development of scientific knowledge and methods. The great scientists were placed in three groups: first, those who prepared the way by collecting, by careful work, the data for great generalizations; second, those who stated for the first time the fundamental laws of nature; and third, those who helped to confirm and establish these great truths among scientists and among the masses. On a careful examination into the importance and influence of the laws, and the nationality of those who first announced them, it was observed that France, Italy, Great Britain,

Sweden, Germany, Russia and the United States were the main contributors, and that considered as a whole, the British races have more than held their own in this field of endeavour. Dr. Walker gave his address on "Dragon-flies." Dr. Walker illustrated his lecture by lantern slides, and gave a very interesting and complete account of the life of these insects—their history, their flying, their haunts, similarities and differences in their habits. It was information by one who showed intimate acquaintance with the insects in the field.

J. R. Moore in his address on "What the Lower School Student brings and what he ought to take away," pointed out that the child's training in Natural Science began as early as that in English Composition and continued throughout life; that this training was largely an accumulation of unrelated facts up to the High School Entrance; that in the High School much time was spent in learning what should have been received in the Public School, so that there was not enough time left for the proper development of the powers of observation and reasoning; that the High School student should be taught to love nature for its own sake, to get a glimpse of the wonderful things in nature and from and through this to secure some idea of his own possibilities and responsibilities.

Dr. Cosens in his paper proposed to consider Science teaching from the viewpoint of culture imparted to the student. He defined "culture" as the development of mind by the normal exercise of its own faculties, such an appropriation of knowledge that it becomes a part of the recipient; and he proceeded to show the relation of science teaching to the stages of knowledge, perception-memory, imagination and thinking. The speaker in treating of perception emphasized the naturalistic side of Science for children. He enlivened the discussion by apt quotations from prominent literary authors. The conclusions drawn were that utilitarian considerations alone, in a Science course, lead to the production of either a very much congested or a loosely connected course, and that cultural considerations lead to the production of an instrumental informing one, which while less comprehensive has its various parts more closely related.

E. Pugsley gave a paper on "Some Difficulties of the Science Teacher." The subject matter was arranged as follows:

1. Difficulties re the teacher himself.
2. Difficulties re the pupils.
3. Difficulties re the equipment, time-tables, etc.

4. Difficulties re the regulations.

Regarding the teacher there may be the following difficulties:

(a) The course is so broad and varied that there may be an actual lack of knowledge of a subject.

(b) He may not be able to draw well.

(c) There may be lack of skill in using tools.

(d) There is danger of personal harm from some of the experiments.

(e) The time factor bothers nearly all.

(f) It is not easy to secure suitable mathematical problems for the Physics and Chemistry of the middle school.

In reference to pupils the following might be noted:

(a) Their mathematical ability is poor.

(b) They lack resourcefulness and initiative.

(c) Many are too young to appreciate the work.

(d) They do not care for out-of-class reading.

(e) Many will not furnish their own specimens.

(f) The discipline during practical work is a worry to some teachers.

With regard to equipment:

(a) It is not always possible to get suitable specimens in logical order.

(b) Many schools must use a class room for the Science classes.

(c) Half-hour periods are a great source of waste and trouble.

(d) The number in the class is too large for practical work.

(e) It is difficult to determine what payment should be made for apparatus broken.

(a) The chief difficulty re Regulations is the deadening effect of strict uniformity.

(b) Unreasonable demands are made regarding the collection.

(c) The Lower School Science course is too long and too difficult.

(d) There are too many subjects taught in our High Schools, many pupils taking 16 or more.

On Thursday morning at 9 a.m. the session was resumed.

Mr. M. H. Ayers exhibited some expensive Weston Millivolt metres, and ampere metres and ohmmetres, also a simple instrument planned by himself. He showed what use he made of it in classes, e.g., to solve many difficulties with regard to apparatus imperfections, to demonstrate quickly points in experiments, to answer pupils' questions accurately and practically. In the gen-

eral discussion which followed, Dr. Satterly objected to the use of a current measurer to prove Ohm's Law. Many were much interested in construction of the ingenious apparatus.

Professor J. Playfair McMurrich gave a very scholarly paper on "The Educational Value of Science." It was ordered to be printed in the proceedings.

A vote of thanks to Professor McMurrich, and also a vote of thanks to Dr. Walker was put and carried.

Mr. J. B. Turner presented the report on Regulations. Subsequent discussion developed along various lines, ending with some sharp criticism of some of the examinations.

A motion was passed making the committee a permanent committee of the Association.

Dr. Kenrick presented the report of the committee on the Chemical Text-book. He reported that after several meetings, and after communication with many teachers, some recommendations as to a new text-book were submitted to the Department. During subsequent correspondence between the Department and Dr. Kenrick it developed that the Department was not disposed to do anything with regard to authorization at present, and that Dr. Kenrick's position as to Atomic Theory was probably not understood by the teachers at large.

Dr. Kenrick was requested by the vote of the Association to put his views in shape for publication in the "School," and the Secretary was instructed to see that every Science teacher secure a copy, and be requested to forward his opinion to the Secretary.

The committee was continued for another year.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

Honorary-President—Dr. E. F. Burton.

President—F. P. Gavin.

Vice-President—T. J. Ivey.

Secretary-Treasurer—Arthur Smith, 52 Parkway Ave.

Committee—J. B. Turner, J. R. Moore, G. A. Carefoot, M. H. Ayers, J. B. Dandeno, P. J. Might.

ARTHUR SMITH,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

APRIL 7TH.

The Classical Section of the O. E. A. met in Room 13, University College, at 10 a.m., Wednesday, April 7th. The President, Mr. J. H. Mills, being unfortunately absent through illness, Dr. Kirkwood, the Vice-President, opened the meeting. The programme proceeded as follows:—

Chancellor Burwash read a most interesting paper on “The Influence of Greece on our Modern Civilization, and the Place Greek should have in our System of Education.”

The next item was a scholarly lecture by Prof. Bennett, of Cornell University, on the “Art of Reading Latin Poetry.” In concluding, Prof. Bennett illustrated his lecture by reading some selections from Horace.

Then came a discussion on Honour Matriculation Latin, introduced by Mr. H. W. Bryan.

Mr. Bryan proposed the following changes:—

- (1) No Vergil for Honour Matric.
- (2) Odes to be lessened by at least one-third.
- (3) Present “Latin Lessons for Beginners” to be supplemented

in the interests of prose and sight work.

The discussion following was participated in by Messrs. Munro, Kerr, Salter, Glassey, Kirkwood and Robinson. Owing to lack of time the discussion was not finished, but was left over till next day.

In the afternoon, at the Archæological Museum, Mr. Currelly talked on “A Roman Rubbish-Heap in Egypt.” He conducted his audience from case to case of relics, and gave them a delightful hour.

APRIL 8TH.

Next day, Thursday, April 8th, the Section met again in Room 13, at 10 a.m.

The first business was the election of officers.

This resulted as follows:—

Hon.-Pres.—Professor Fletcher, University College.

President—Dr. Kirkwood, Trinity University.

Vice-Pres.—H. W. Bryan, Renfrew.

Sec.-Treas.—Chas. L. Barnes, Jarvis C. I., Toronto.

Councillors—Miss Janet Penfold, D. A. Glassey, J. T. Lillie, Prof. N. DeWitt, Prof. Oswald Smith, J. H. Mills.

As the new Constitution entitled the Section to a representative on the Board of Directors of the O. E. A., the *Sec.-Treas.* was appointed to act in that capacity.

The programme was then resumed.

Prof. DeWitt spoke on "The Teacher, the Student, the Examination," dealing in a practical way with difficulties that every summer confront the examiners of Matriculation Latin papers:

The paper was followed by a discussion. It was recommended that the Executive consider the question of sending information to teachers regarding the form of matric. questions and of answers expected.

The next item on the programme was a paper by Prof. J. Hugh Michael, M.A. His subject was "A Plea for Hellenistic Greek."

Then followed unfinished business. Mr. Bryan's motion of the preceding day, that a committee be named to act regarding the proposed changes in Honour Matric. Latin, was put and carried. The committee was to consist of Prof. Fletcher, Prof. Robertson, Prof. DeWitt, Mr. Mills, Mr. Glassey, Mr. Bryan, and also the President and the *Sec.-Treas.* of the Section. The President, Dr. Kirkwood, to be Convener.

The Section then adjourned for the year.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The registration of members began at 9.30 a.m. on the above date. Owing to the absence of the President, Mr. Overholt, the Vice-President, Mr. Robt. Wightman, occupied the chair.

The minutes of previous meetings were read and confirmed.

The Treasurer's report was read and adopted.

The President being absent, his paper was not given.

Mr. Beatty, owing to pressure of work, was unable to be present, and Mr. Pounder, of Toronto University, took his place and gave an excellent paper on "Numerical Computation."

Mr. Davidson followed with a paper on "Home Work," showing that home work in Mathematics should have for its object the development of initiative and the power of self-instruction in the pupil.

Mr. J. G. Workman then gave an interesting paper on the subject, "Can Geometry be made interesting?" He showed how important it was to get pupils started in the right way, and indicated what devices he used for securing the interest and co-operation of the pupils.

The meeting then adjourned.

In the afternoon at 2 o'clock the Section met at the new Technical School, on Lippincott Street, and under the guidance of Mr. Warren and Dr. Rutherford a very pleasant and profitable two hours was spent in going through the new building.

APRIL 7TH.

The registration of members was continued at 9.30 a.m.

A communication from the South Western Ontario Inspectors' Association proposing two changes in the Regulations of the Education Department, viz., the changing of the financial year to correspond with the academic year, and the standardizing of reports, was received and endorsed.

The officers for the ensuing year were then elected as follows:

Hon.-President—W. J. Robertson, M.A.

President—Robt. Wightman, B.A.

Vice-President—W. J. Loughheed, M.A.

Sec'y-Treas.—Chas. Auld, B.A., Tillsonburg.

Councillors—H. Rose, B.A., J. S. Cameron, B.A., J. D. Dickson, B.A., G. F. Armstrong, B.A., Mr. Ewers, B.A.

Representative of the Section on Board of Directors—Chas. Auld, B.A.

The programme was then proceeded with.

Dr. Fields, of Toronto University, gave an address on "Universities, Research and Mathematics." From his wide acquaintance with eminent mathematicians and the leading universities in Europe, Dr. Fields gave the Section a most interesting address on his subject.

W. J. Robertson followed with an address on "The Status of the High School Teacher—Past and Present," showing how untrammelled the teacher of the past was compared with the teacher of the present.

G. F. Armstrong then discussed the present text in Geometry. He criticised a number of the definitions, the absence of postulates, and the proofs of a number of the propositions. The discussion by the Section was interesting and helpful to all.

The meeting then adjourned.

W. J. LOUGHEED,
Sec'y-Treas.

MINUTES OF THE ENGLISH AND HISTORY SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The English and History Section held its ninth annual meeting in Room 57, University College, on Tuesday morning, April 6, 1915, with the President, Mr. G. M. Jones, B.A., in the chair.

On motion, the minutes for 1914 were taken as read. Miss E. J. Guest was appointed Press Representative. The President reported that since last annual meeting a Syllabus of the Lower School work in History had been prepared by certain members of the Section, and had been adopted by the Education Department.

The President, Mr. G. M. Jones, then gave a very instructive address on "The Growth of Democracy during the past Century." This address will be printed in the annual report.

Prof. J. F. Macdonald, of Queen's University, then read a very interesting paper on "The Poetry of Tennyson." Prof. W. J. Alexander and Prof. Edgar followed with a few words in criticism and appreciation. The paper will be published in the minutes of the annual proceedings.

The Secretary read a short paper prepared by Mr. A. McVicar, of London, on the subject, "Should History be restored to the Entrance Examination?" A live discussion on the topic ensued which was participated in by Prof. W. E. Macpherson, Prof. Alexander, Mr. A. E. Prince, Mr. L. J. Pettit and others.

The topic, "History Scholarships and the place of History on the Honour Matriculation Examination" was introduced by Mr. Geo. Malcolm. After some further discussion by Prof. Wrong, Mr. L. J. Pettit and others, it was agreed to appoint a committee to take the matter up with the proper authorities and endeavour to secure adequate recognition for History on the Honour Matriculation; said committee to consist of Prof. W. L. Grant, Prof. Wrong, Mr. G. M. Jones, and Dr. E. A. Hardy.

Mr. Geo. H. Reed then introduced a discussion on "The Standard in English on the Honour Matriculation Examination." He quoted figures to show that the percentage of students securing first class Honour standing in English was smaller than that in any other department. The topic was discussed at some length by Prof. Macdonald, Prof. Alexander, Miss J. Thomas and others. It was then moved by Jas. Keillor, seconded by Mr. H. G. Martyn, that the figures quoted by Mr. Reed should be forwarded to the Education Department, and the Matriculation Board.

APRIL 7TH.

On Wednesday morning a joint meeting with the Modern Language Section was held, with Mr. G. M. Jones, President of the English and History Section, in the chair. The election of officers was proceeded with, and resulted as follows:—

President—Miss Emily J. Guest, M.A.

Vice-President—Prof. M. W. Wallace.

Secretary-Treasurer—Jas. Keillor, B.A., 116 Beatrice St., Toronto.

Director—Prof. W. E. Macpherson.

Councillors—Geo. Malcolm, B.A., L. J. Pettit, B.A., Miss R. Stenhouse, B.A.

An exceedingly interesting and instructive address was delivered by President E. E. Braithwaite, of the Western University on "The Historical Background of Biblical Literature." The speaker gave a very valuable outline, showing the relation of the various books of the Bible to the history of the period. He also showed how the study of the Bible might be made more interesting and more instructive by looking at it from the historical point of view.

Prof. Snow being unable to be present to deliver his address on "Russia and the Russian People," his place was taken by Prof. Pelham Edgar, who gave a very able address on "Poetry and War." The lecturer illustrated his subject with numerous quotations from present day writers of war poetry.

The meeting then adjourned.

JAS. KEILLOR,
Sec.-Treas.

MINUTES OF THE COMMERCIAL SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The Commercial Section of the O. E. A. met in Room 19, University College. As the President, Mr. W. E. Evans, B.A., had removed to New Westminster, B.C., Mr. Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Pæd., was elected President for this session, and took charge of the meeting.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and approved.

The following committees were then appointed:

Nominating Committee—The President, Secretary, Vice-Pres., Miss Cragg and Mr. Dickenson.

A farewell address received from our President, Mr. W. E. Evans, B.A., now Commercial Teacher in the New Westminster, B.C., High School, was then read by the Secretary. (See Page 197.) A paper on "Weak Points of Inexperienced Stenographers as seen by Business Men," by Miss S. Blyth, Guelph Collegiate Institute. (See page 199.)

The discussion which followed was very favourable, and complimentary comments were made by Messrs. W. J. Walker, T. W. Oates and J. A. Dickenson. The feeling was expressed that more time should be given to Spelling, Business Correspondence, etc., and less time on History and other subjects of less importance in the Commercial Course. It was also stated that the tendency was to start speeding in Stenography too soon.

Then followed a paper on "The Acquisition of Speed in Short-hand," by Miss M. L. Brill, Oshawa High School. Miss Brill said, "This is essentially an age when speed is a prime factor in the business world. The machinery which can produce the desired article in the least possible time; the equipment which is conducive to time-saving; the Stenographer who can take dictation most rapidly and can correctly produce with greatest speed." Miss Brill also showed how the Stenotype machine was competing with stenographers. (See page 215.)

APRIL 7TH.

The meeting was opened at 9.30 a.m. with the President, Mr. Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Pæd., in the chair, and the following members were elected for the ensuing year:—

President—W. J. O'Brien, Galt.

Vice-President—Miss G. M. Watterworth.

Sec'y-Treas.—Miss E. R. Cragg, Woodstock, Ont.

Councillors—Miss S. Blyth, Miss M. L. Brill, Messrs. T. W. Oates, J. A. Dickenson, and A. F. Birchard.

Representative to the College and High School Department, and to the Board of Directors—Wm. Ward, B.A., B.Pæd., Toronto.

The following questions were then very ably discussed:—

(a) The Systematic Teaching of Rapid Calculation.

(b) Business Law—Two Years' Course or One Year's Course.

(c) History in Commercial Course.

The general opinion was that Business Law should be taken in two years, and that it would be more beneficial to leave History off the Commercial Course and put more time on Business Correspondence and Business Forms, which were now only taught in connection with Composition, in the majority of the schools.

A paper on "The Effects of the War on Exchange, Stock Exchange, etc.," by P. McIntosh, Esq., Vice-President Shaw's Business Schools, was very interesting, and a vote of thanks was tendered Mr. McIntosh. (See page 204.)

Then followed a paper on "The Use of the Metronome in Commercial Penmanship Classes," by T. W. Oates, Esq., St. Thomas Collegiate Institute. Mr. Oates is very enthusiastic over the Metronome, and urged every Penmanship teacher to give the Metronome a fair trial. (See page 209.)

Under "Unfinished Business" it was moved and carried, That the Officers of the Section be instructed to issue a circular and send the same to the Commercial Teachers in the Province with the object of creating additional interest in the work of the Section, a copy of the programme to be sent with the circular. It was also moved and carried, That the Representative to the College and High School Department be instructed to see that it is arranged that in future every Commercial Teacher receive a copy of the programme of Easter Conventions.

As there was no further business the Section then adjourned.

W. J. O'BRIEN,

Sec'y-Treas.

MINUTES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The annual meeting of the High School Principals' Section was held in West Hall, April 6th, commencing at 9.30 a.m., President F. P. Gavin in the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read and confirmed.

The Treasurer presented a financial statement showing a credit balance of ninety-one cents.

The President appointed a nominating committee consisting of the Past Presidents of the Section.

The President, in his address on "Two Unused Opportunities for Service by the High School," stated that the High School doors had not been opened as widely as they might have been, and that courses should be fitted to the needs and abilities of the pupils, and advocated what is known as the "Six-6 Plan." The address was ordered to be published in the Annual Report of the Association, on motion of Messrs. Rogers and Gundry.

Mr. R. Wright opened an interesting discussion on "High School Courses for teachers should be adjusted so that the Normal Entrance Course would take four years, and the Faculty Entrance one year more." He suggested (1) making the Middle School course a four-year course, with a Part 1 Examination at end of the third year, and a Part 2 Examination at end of the fourth year, due provision being made for important options, such as Domestic Science, Agriculture, Manual Training, and Art; the Biology to be taken from the Faculty Entrance and placed on the Normal Entrance, and (2) that the Faculty Entrance subjects should be reduced in number to nine, making Chemistry and Mineralogy optional with Latin and Greek, or the Modern Languages, the general policy being to encourage a complete High School course for every pupil, and thus to increase the positive teaching power of every Public School teacher.

Mr. H. M. McCuaig considered that the present curriculum was fairly satisfactory.

Mr. Merritt followed with a paper on the subject under discussion which was ordered to be published in the Annual Report. In it he thought that a policy should be adopted, particularly in the Upper School, of allowing the programme to be adapted to the individual, and a course for the Upper School involving this principle was outlined.

The discussion was continued by many others who were decidedly in favour of a four years' course for Normal Entrance.

Moved by Messrs. Merritt and Burt, That in view of the fact that, for any but the exceptionally gifted student, the present Faculty Entrance requires six years for completion, and that therefore many deserving pupils are debarred from its benefits, it is the opinion of this Section that the course should be reduced to one of five years, and that some degree of choice of subjects should be allowed students in the last year. The resolution was referred to a committee consisting of the members of the Executive Committee, and Messrs. Wright, Leamington, McCuaig, Welland, Merritt, Newmarket, and Cowles, Dunnville, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting.

The discussion of "The High School Inspector's Report on 'Character of the Work' should be enlarged to cover all the subjects or omitted," was opened by Mr. Gundry, who was followed by Messrs. Mayberry, Snider, Massey, McDougall and others, and it was moved by Messrs. Rogers and Hagarty, that the matter be referred to a committee consisting of the mover and seconder and Mr. McDougall to be reported on next year. Mr. Kirkconnell addressed the meeting on "What is a fair average per cent. for Monthly Test Examinations, and how to provide against extreme standards in marking." He said that assistant teachers could be divided into two classes, undue optimists and undue pessimists, the former being the more difficult to manage, and considered it a reflection on any teacher in charge of a subject to present a report at the end of the year which passed only a small percentage of the pupils in the promotion examinations, that something serious was lacking in such a teacher, and that he or she should not be retained.

The Nominating Committee reported as follows:—

President—T. A. Kirkconnell, Lindsay.

Secretary-Treasurer—E. E. Snider, Port Hope.

Councillors—Messrs. R. N. Merritt, A. P. Gundry, W. P. Hume.

The report was received and adopted.

The Secretary was instructed to forward a letter of condolence to Mrs. T. H. Redditt, Barrie, and letters of sympathy on account of serious illness to Messrs. Coombs, of St. Catharines, and Steele, of Orangeville.

The meeting then adjourned.

E. E. SNIDER,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 6TH.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the East Hall of the University of Toronto.

The first hour was given to registering members and delegates, and a social time was enjoyed at the informal reception by the officers of the department.

At 10.15 a.m., the meeting was called to order, Miss E. Abram, President, in the chair.

Mr. George A. Cole read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

Chas. G. Fraser was elected Minute-Secretary.

The minutes, as printed in last year's report of the proceedings, were taken as read and confirmed.

The following communications of the year were presented:—

1. From the following teachers' institutes contributing to the Public School Department of the O. E. A.:—

Brant	\$5.00	Northumberland and Dur-	
Dundas	5.00	ham (III.)	\$2.00
Elgin	5.00	Ontario	5.00
Essex (S.)	2.00	Oxford	5.00
Frontenac (S.)	5.00	Parry Sound (E.)	5.00
Grey (S.)	5.00	Parry Sound (W.)	5.00
Grey (W.)	5.00	Renfrew (N.)	5.00
Halton	5.00	Stormont	10.00
Huron (W.)	10.00	Thunder Bay	2.00
Kenora	10.00	Toronto	50.00
Kingston	5.00	Victoria	5.00
Lanark (E.)	5.00	Waterloo	4.00
Lanark (W.)	2.00	Welland	5.00
Leeds (W.)	5.00	Wellington (N.)	2.00
Lennox	5.00	Wentworth	7.00
London	10.00		
Muskoka	2.00	Total.....	\$208.00
Northumberland and			
Durham (I.)	5.00		

2. From the county institutes.—The correspondence for the year, and the resolutions of provincial importance passed thereat.

3. From the county institutes.—Regarding the resolutions of the Public School Department for 1914.

4. From the officials of the various departments and sections of the O.E.A., 1914-15.

5. From the Minister of Education and the various officials of the Department of Education for 1914-15.

6. The correspondence of the Committee on Superannuation.

These communications were received and referred to the proper committees.

By resolution, the President was asked to appoint the Resolution Committee and to announce it at the afternoon session.

The report of the Secretary was presented, showing the work of the executive for the year. The report was adopted. (See page 229.)

The report of the Treasurer was then presented showing:—

Receipts.

Balance on hand from 1913-1914	\$19.75
Members' Fees	261.00
From Teachers' Institutes	208.00
Total.....	<hr/> \$488.75

Expenditure.

Members' Fees to General Association	\$135.00
Railway Agent—Viséing Certificates	56.25
Secretary Fraser	100.00
Treasurer Speirs	30.00
Minute Secretary	5.00
Printing—Bryant Press	40.00
Postage, Stationery, etc.	30.00
Total.....	<hr/> \$396.25
Balance on hand	92.50

The resolutions of the county institutes were then presented, being approval of the resolutions of this department, and resolutions in approval of a Superannuation Scheme for Teachers for the Province of Ontario. These were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

The report of the "Legislation" Committee was then presented by Vice-President Underhill. (See page 233.)

The report of the "Second Book" Committee was presented by Principal James F. Kirkwood, chairman, and copies of it were distributed. It consisted of three parts: (1) a suggested arrangement of the lessons of the book according to their difficultness, and their division into a junior and a senior part; (2) a list of the authors of the selections, arranged alphabetically; a pronouncing vocabulary of the proper names. The report was received, discussed and approved. (See page 239.)

Mr. G. A. Jordison reported progress on behalf of the "Third Book" Committee.

Mr. J. A. Underhill reported progress on behalf of the "Fourth Book" Committee.

Mr. T. A. Reid, chairman of the Committee on Superannuation, presented the report of that committee.

Mr. W. F. Moore, chairman, presented the report of the "School Library" Committee, and asked that the committee be discharged.

It was moved in amendment by Mr. H. Ward, and seconded by Mr. M. W. Althouse, that we express our appreciation of the efforts of the committee, and ask it to continue its work. The amendment carried.

The secretary, Mr. Chas. G. Fraser, was instructed to ask the Department of Education to publish the reports of the Library Committee as a special and separate bulletin.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2 o'clock, President. Miss Abram, in the chair.

Miss Elizabeth Connor, Kingston, read a very excellent paper on "Supplementary Reading in the Primary Grade."

By resolution of the department this paper appears in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 250.)

In connection with this subject there was an exhibit of reading matter suitable for pupils in the primary grade.

A resolution of thanks to the British, Canadian and American publishers who had contributed to the exhibit, was passed.

Mr. S. B. Sinclair, M.A., Ph.D., gave a very interesting address on "School Gardens in the United States," and a number of very

interesting slides were thrown upon the screen. (See page 269.)

Professor S. B. McCready gave an address on "Agricultural Education in Ontario, in 1915."

The President, Miss Abram, announced the following as the Committee on Resolutions:—J. A. Underhill (Fort William) Convener, Geo. A. Cole (Orillia), Henry Ward, B.A., (Toronto), W. F. Moore (Dundas), J. A. Short (Essex), H. A. Beaton (Walker-ville), A. E. Bryson (Cobalt), Martin Kerr, B.A., (Hamilton), R. F. Downey, B.A., (Peterboro), M. W. Mott (Belleville), Jas. F. Kirkwood (London), J. A. Gillespie (Victoria Harbor), the President and the Secretary.

The reception of the Daughters of the Empire, being held in Convocation Hall, was then announced.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., President of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, then took the chair, and the meeting continued under its auspices.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7TH.

Meeting was called to order at 9.30 a.m.

President, Miss Abram, in the chair.

Mr. Martin Kerr read a portion of Scripture and led in prayer.

The minutes of Tuesday's meetings were read and confirmed.

Mr. Martin Kerr presented the auditors' report. The report was adopted.

It was moved by Mr. Geo. A. Cole, and seconded by Mr. Martin Kerr, that as the various sections of the Elementary Department of the O.E.A. will in future be required to meet at least once each year, and it will be necessary to elect a president and a secretary for our department for the coming year, the Public School Sections invite the president and the secretary of each section of the department to meet in the East Hall at twelve o'clock to-day for the purpose of making provision for the election of these officers, and that the secretary be requested to send a suitable invitation to each of the other sections. (Carried.)

Mr. Henry Ward then presented the report of the Committee on Course of Study.

It was moved by Mr. J. E. Whiting, and seconded by Mr. J. A. Gillespie, that the Committee on Course of Study be instructed to wait upon the proper authorities to ask the privilege of advising the Department in the arrangement and preparation of the forth-

coming manuals which will in reality be the interpretation of the course of study. (Carried.)

Vice-President Underhill was then called to the chair and expressed his appreciation of the honour that had been conferred upon him in electing him to the position of Vice-President of the Public School Department.

Miss Abram then delivered a very excellent address on the "Opportunities which the teacher has at this time in teaching true patriotism to the boys and girls of the most favoured part of the Great British Empire."

By unanimous resolution, it was decided to ask Miss Abram to have her valuable address included in the Report of the Proceedings. (See page 225.)

A few minutes were then devoted to offering suggestions to the President and Secretary for the meeting of the sections of the department in regard to the selection of a president and a secretary for the Elementary Department.

President, Miss Abram, then resumed the chair.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

President—Mr. J. A. Underhill, Fort William.

Vice President—Martin Kerr, B.A., Hamilton.

Past President—Miss Esther Abram, Chatham.

Secretary—Chas. G. Fraser, 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

Treasurer—R. M. Speirs, Toronto.

It was moved by C. E. Kelley, and seconded by D. Young: That this Section appoint a programme committee of six—three urban teachers and rural teachers—to advise with the officers of the Section in preparing the programme for the 1916 session. (Carried.)

The meeting then divided itself into two sections—urban and rural—to consider the matter of urban and rural members of the Programme Committee and the following were elected:—

URBAN REPRESENTATIVES.

H. A. Beaton, King Edward School, Walkerville.

Geo. A. Cole, Central School, Orillia.

John Munro, B.A., Stinson Street School, Hamilton.

RURAL REPRESENTATIVES.

J. W. Brown, R.R. 4, Guelph (Wellington county).

G. A. Jordison, Maynooth (Hastings county).

G. H. Jolley, Meaford (Grey county).

The following notice of motion was then handed in by Mr. Thomas Packer: That the best interests of both pupils and teachers require the placing of our whole educational system upon a basis which will be independent of party politics.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

JOINT MEETING.

Inspectors' Section. Public School Section.
Ontario Teachers' Alliance Section.

Meeting was called to order at 2 o'clock by Miss Abram, the President.

Inspector Smith, President of the Inspectors' Section, was invited to take the chair.

Miss Margaret E. Pooke, of Windsor, then read a very valuable paper on "Pupils' Record Cards," and suggested the appointment of a committee to draft a uniform set of cards for the Province.

Inspector Edwards followed with an address on the same subject.

It was moved by Chas. G. Fraser, seconded by Martin Kerr: That Miss Pooke, President Smith, and President Miss Abram be a committee of three to nominate a "School Forms Committee" and submit the personnel to the two sections for conformation or approval; and that this committee, so named, be asked to report at the next meeting of the O.E.A.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy, Director of Auxiliary Classes for Ontario, gave an address on "Auxiliary Classes."

L. E. Embree, M.A., LL.D., then gave an address on the "Aims and Claims of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance." (See page 401.)

On motion of Henry Ward and Geo. A. Cole the Doctor was thanked for his valuable address, and the executive was instructed to have the paper published in the Report of the Proceedings.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., President of the Ontario Teachers' Alliance, was then called to the chair, and the meeting was merged into a meeting of the Alliance.

· THURSDAY, APRIL 8TH.

Meeting was called to order at 9.30.

The President, Miss Abram, in the chair.

Principal A. E. Bryson led in devotional exercises.

The minutes of Wednesday's meetings were read and confirmed. Mr. Thos. Packer then introduced the motion, notice of which was given yesterday: That the best interest of both pupils and teachers require the placing of our whole educational system upon a basis which will be independent of party politics.

It was moved by Principal Martin Kerr, and seconded by Principal M. W. Althouse: That this resolution be placed on the table. (Carried.)

Principal Henry Ward gave an address on "A Constitution for the Elementary Department of the Ontario Educational Association and its Sections," showing the many difficulties which had to be taken into consideration in the preparation of such an important work and the need for very careful proceeding.

It was moved by Principal Ward, and seconded by Principal Beaton, that the work of preparing such a constitution be intrusted to a committee to be named by the President. (Carried.)

Principal T. A. Reid in discussing "How a Scheme of Superannuation for the Teachers of Ontario Should Be Financed and Administered," presented and explained the salient features of the Superannuation Scheme as outlined in the Bill which the Minister of Education had lately introduced in the Ontario Legislature.

It was moved by Mr. Thos. Packer, and seconded by Principal Munro, that the Association express its appreciation of the great work which had been done by Chairman Reid, and the other members of the Superannuation Committee in having the Superannuation Scheme brought to such a successful stage of its progress as it is at present. (Carried.)

Secretary Fraser reported that at the joint committee of representatives of the various sections of the Elementary Department of the Ontario Educational Association it was recommended: That as it was impossible to hold a joint meeting of the various sections of our department for the election of officers this year, it be recom-

mended to the sections that the following officers be elected for the ensuing year.

<i>President</i>	Mrs. H. S. Strathy, Toronto, <i>League of Empire Section.</i>
<i>Sec'y-Treas</i>	Chas. G. Fraser, Toronto, <i>Public School Section.</i>

The report was adopted.

The meeting then adjourned.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

JOINT MEETING.

<i>Public School Section.</i>	<i>Simplified Spelling Section.</i>
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The meeting was called to order by the President, Miss Abram, at 2.15, and Dr. Horning, President-elect of the Simplified Spelling Section, was invited to the chair.

Dr. Geo. H. Danton, Secretary of the Board of Simplified Spelling, New York City, gave a very interesting address on "Simplified Spelling and the Teacher."

On motion of Secretary Fraser and Principal Cole, Dr. Danton was asked to prepare an epitome of his address to be included in the Report of the Proceedings of the Association. (See page 263.)

Miss Abram then resumed the chair.

The following Committee on School Forms was announced: Inspector C. B. Edwards (London), Inspector W. C. Froats (Carleton Place), Principal H. Ward (Toronto), Principal R. G. Elliott (Toronto), Principal R. J. Robertson (Carleton Place), and President Miss Esther Abram (Chatham).

Principal John A. Trask then read a very valuable paper on the subject of "The Relation of the Principal to his Assistants."

On motion it was decided to have Mr. Trask's paper included in the Report of the Proceedings of the Association. (See page 258.)

The resolutions of 1914 which have not been realized were re-affirmed, and the Executive was instructed to prepare the same for publication.

The minute secretary was granted \$10 for his services, and the ordinary expenses of the Association were passed.

The expenses of the Superannuation Committee, amounting to \$11.65, were passed.

It was decided to furnish the secretary with a typewriter for the coming year.

It was moved by Principal H. Ward, and seconded by Principal H. A. Beaton, that we express our appreciation of the able manner in which Miss Abram has presided over the meetings of our department, and that we congratulate her on the very successful year that had attended her presidency of the Association.

The motion was put by Secretary Fraser, and being carried unanimously, was suitably presented to Miss Abram who, in reply, made a very witty address, expressing her appreciation of the honour she had received in being elected to the presidency, and the pleasure which the hearty co-operation of the members of the department had afforded her.

As the secretary of the Public School Department of the O. E. A. will this year have the honour of being the President of the General Association, it was decided that Principal H. A. Beaton be named as one of the representatives from this section of the Elementary Department of the O.E.A. on the Board of Directors in place of Mr. Fraser.

The meeting then closed with the singing of the National Anthem.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

APRIL 6TH.

The Kindergarten Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the Croft Chapter House, Toronto University, the President, Miss Lillian B. Harding in the chair.

The session opened with the singing of the Kindergartners' Hymn.

After the reading of the minutes, the President welcomed the members, and introduced Miss Virginia Graeff, Directress of the School of Art in Cleveland, Ohio, who during the Convention gave three most interesting addresses on "The Child and the Picture," "The Child and the Story" and "The Child and the Book." The first of these was given. For an outline of same see page 275.

Miss Irene Symons, of the Toronto Conservatory of Music, then gave two delightful vocal selections.

APRIL 7TH.

The first item on the Programme was the President's address.
See page 271.

Miss Graeff then gave the second lecture of the course, "The Child and the Story," which was replete with apt illustrations and suggestions.

APRIL 8TH.

The Treasurer's report showed a balance of \$77.38.

The election of officers was as follows:—

President—Miss H. E. Heakes, Toronto.

* *Vice-President*—Miss Clara Brenton, London.

Director—Miss Lillian B. Harding, Toronto.

Sec.-Treas.—Miss K. Rankin, Stratford.

Councillors—Miss M. MacIntyre, Toronto; Miss A. Bryans, London; Miss Louise Currie, Toronto; Miss E. Howell, Brantford; Miss Agnes MacKenzie, Toronto; Miss A. Pepper, Ottawa; Miss Pettit, Guelph; Miss Ada Baker, Ottawa; Mrs. Melville White.

Miss Louise Murphy of Montreal gave a charming lecture on "The Bird Songs of Canada." For synopsis see page 277.

This was followed by a song by Mrs. Melville White. Miss Margaret Bell then gave "Suggestions for Color Work," and Miss Graeff the third of her most valuable lectures, "The Child and the Book."

The meeting adjourned at 12.30.

H. E. HEAKES,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

APRIL 6TH.

The Training Section of the O.E.A. met at 10 a.m. in Room 33, University College, Toronto, Mr. Wm. Prendergast, B.A., B.Pæd., the President, in the chair.

After the adoption of the minutes of the last annual meeting and the appointment of Dr. H. T. J. Coleman as Press Agent, Dr. Peter Sandiford, M.Se. of the Faculty of Education, Toronto, addressed the Section on "The Training of Teachers in England."

J. W. Emery, B.A., B.Pæd., of Stratford, followed with a delightfully inspiring and non-technical address on "The Well Trained Teacher." He declared that one factor, enthusiasm for the work and love for the profession, will cover a multitude of deficiencies in other lines. To inspire this spirit should be the aim of the teacher.

Mr. John Hartley, Principal of the Vankleek Hill Model School, discussed "Child Training" in a carefully prepared and helpful paper.

APRIL 7TH.

W. Prendergast, B.A., B.Pæd., of the Toronto Normal School, addressed the Section at 10 a.m. on the subject, "The Evolution of a Young Nation." He strongly advocated the use of the English language as one of the essential requirements of a vigorous and homogeneous national life. In this connection he presented a strong protest against the agitation in Eastern Ontario in favour of the use of the French language in the schools of Ontario.

In accordance with the Revised Constitution of the O. E. A. a joint meeting of the Training and the Inspectors' Sections was held in Room 65, at which the subject, "Possible Improvements in the Training of teachers," was ably discussed by Mr. W. J. Karr, B.A., B.Pæd., of the Ottawa Normal School, and Inspector J. F. Sullivan, of London.

The following officers of "the Supervising and Training Department" were elected at the joint session:

President—H. Conn, B.A., S.P.S., Sarnia.

Vice-President—W. Prendergast, B.A., B.Pæd., Toronto.

Sec'y-Treas.—R. W. Murray, B.A., Toronto.

THURSDAY, APRIL 8TH, 1915.

The officers of the Section for 1916 were elected as follows:

President—W. I. Chisholm, M.A., Peterboro.

Secy-Treas.—H. J. Crawford, B.A., Toronto.

Directors—Dean W. Pakenham, Toronto; A. Stevenson, B.A., London.

Dr. H. G. Park, B.A., of the Peterboro Normal School, gave a thoughtful address on "The State in its Relation to Education, Past and Present."

The last address was given by John Dearness, M.A., of the London Normal School, on "Comparisons," in which he emphasized

the good work done for education by Ryerson and other pioneers. The session adjourned at 12 o'clock noon, after the President had received the thanks of the Section for the efficient manner in which he had conducted the proceedings and for the excellent bill-of-fare furnished by the programme.

W. I. CHISHOLM,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

APRIL 6TH.

The members met for enrolment at 10 a.m. The meeting of the afternoon was called to order at 2 p.m. Meeting was opened with prayer by Mr. McCool.

It was moved, seconded and carried, that the minutes be taken as read. Moved by C. B. Edwards, seconded by J. M. Cole, that J. H. Smith, of Stratford, be Corresponding Secretary.—Carried.

Moved by J. Marshall, seconded by C. B. Edwards, that Messrs. Kilmer, Reid, and Field be Nominating Committee.—Carried.

Moved by J. Smith, seconded by N. W. Campbell, that Messrs. Edwards, Cole and McCool be Committee on Resolutions.—Carried.

The matter of consolidated schools was brought up as several cases of apparently advantageous consolidation arose for discussion. Messrs. McDougall (North Bay Normal), Broderick, Denny, Tilly, and also Messrs. N. W. Campbell, Reid, Conn, Marshall, J. H. Smith (Chatham), and Huff all took part.

Moved by J. M. Denny, seconded by W. R. Liddy, that this Section appoint a special committee to consider the question of the advisability of the extension of the principle of Consolidated Schools, to gather information on the subject and report to this Section at our next meeting.—Carried.

Rural School Problems were discussed in all their phases by Messrs. J. M. Field, M. R. Reid, and John Marshall.

Mr. J. Elgin Tom informed the Section by letter that he was called away and could not be present. Meeting adjourned at 4.15 p.m.

APRIL 7TH.

Meeting was called to order at 9 o'clock a.m. to hear the subject of "Departmental Monthly Gazette for Teachers," ably handled by Inspector G. G. McNab.

J. P. Hoag, Inspector of Continuation Schools, favoured the meeting with a lively discussion of "Educational Waste."

Moved by Mr. Michell, seconded by Mr. Craig, that Mr. McNab be authorized to present the matter of Departmental Monthly Gazette for Teachers to the Department, with power to appoint his own committee, being endorsed by the Association.—Carried.

Moved by Mr. Kilmer, seconded by J. H. Smith, that the following be the officers for 1915-16:—

President—W. C. Froats, Carleton Place.

Secretary-Treasurer—John Marshall, Welland.

Director—J. A. Taylor, St. Thomas.—Carried.

The President gave an interesting address, which was discussed by Mr. Mulloy, Mr. McDougall and Mr. Lees.

Moved by Mr. Edwards, seconded by J. P. Hoag, that the discussion be adjourned till 10.10 Thursday, to be then continued by Mr. Lees in place of the topic assigned to Mr. Edwards.

As the Training Department was now present it was decided to hold the joint meeting in the Inspectors' room.

Moved by Mr. Prendergast and seconded, that J. H. Smith take the chair.—Carried. It was moved and seconded, that the committee for nominating the officers of the Supervising and Training Department for 1915-16 be Dr. Pakenham and Messrs. Chisholm and McDougall (North Bay), along with the members of the Inspectors' Section Committee, namely, Messrs. Kilmer, Reid and Field.—Carried.

Mr. W. J. Karr, of the Ottawa Normal School, opened up for discussion the very important problem, "Possible Improvements in the Training of Teachers." This topic was handled with an ability and seriousness worthy of the common subject of the two sections. J. F. Sullivan, of London, dealt briefly but effectively with the more salient points wherein improvements might be made. Meeting adjourned at 12.15.

The Inspectors met with the Public School Department at 2 p.m.

Miss M. E. Pooke, of Windsor, and Inspector Edwards, of London, discussed somewhat exhaustively the nature of Pupils' Record Cards, their advantage, the work entailed, and the benefit accruing from their judicious use.

A committee was appointed to investigate the matter, and to consider the most suitable kind of card that should be generally adopted.

The Inspectors now met in joint session with the Trustees' Department and the Physical Training Section. The subject, "How School Play can be Enriched," was introduced by J. G. Elliott. Mr. S. H. Armstrong gave the subject a full discussion, ranging over the whole field, insisting upon Supervision, the kinds of play, equipment needed, etc. Mr. Mott emphasized its value in getting, and holding the boy, in promoting the physical and character interests of boys. Inspector Lees, being impressed with the lack of social life in rural communities, emphasized the school as a social centre. Inspector McDougall stressed the value of games, if spontaneous and enthusiastic, in vitalizing and building up in a national way the durability of the boys' and girls' lives. The teacher has his duty, as also have the Trustees and Inspector. Games conduce to earnestness in work, to health, happiness and character. Some of the problems in the way of introducing supervised play were handled briefly by Mr. Kirk—an unconvinced people, the hard work it implies, parental over-solicitude, regrettable professional sports, the amusement idea, the movies, over-pampering.

The meeting adjourned 4.40 p.m.

APRIL 8TH.

Meeting opened at 9 o'clock, with the reports of committees, general business and discussion.

The following officers for the Department were announced and approved:—

President—Henry Conn, B.A., Sarnia.

Vice-President—Wm. Prendergast, B.A., B.Pæd., Toronto.

Sec'y-Treas.—R. W. Murray, B.A., Toronto.

Messrs. Marshall and Froats were appointed officers to represent the Section on the Board of Directors.

Moved by Mr. Broderick, seconded by J. H. Smith, that the Draft of the Constitution for the Section be left in the hands of the Executive of the Section.—Carried.

Moved by J. H. Smith, seconded by N. Campbell, that the Department be requested to permit Inspectors to visit neighbouring Inspectors at the time of the Teachers' Convention.—Carried.

The Committee on Consolidation was announced as follows:—Messrs. Lees, Peterborough, MacDougall, Petrolea, and J. A. Taylor, St. Thomas.

Moved by Mr. Clark, seconded by Mr. Craig, that Mr. Broderick and Mr. Mulloy be auditors.—Carried.

Moved by Mr. C. W. Mulloy, seconded by Inspector Stevens, that the present system of administration of rural schools by Rural School Boards of three Trustees should be changed, and that Township or County Boards be substituted therefor, and that a committee be appointed to take up this matter and arrange for the discussion next year, and if possible to arrange for a joint discussion with the Trustees' Department.—Carried.

The committee appointed were Messrs. Mulloy, Stevens, Marshall.

Dr. Helen MacMurchy discussed "Auxiliary Classes" in an interesting manner, and answered many questions of inquiry concerning the working of the law.

Moved by T. A. Craig, seconded by N. Campbell, that a vote of thanks be tendered Dr. MacMurchy for her address.—Carried.

Round Table discussion began at 10.30, with Rev. W. H. G. Colles' address on "Eligibility of Women to Rural Boards."

"Co-operation of Parents" was then discussed by L. A. Green, of Sault St. Marie.

Bill No. 171, 1915, respecting the Superannuation of Certain Teachers and Inspectors was considered.

Moved by Mr. Liddy, seconded by Mr. Burgess, that J. H. Smith, Chatham; J. Elgin Tom, and T. A. Craig be a Committee on Inspectors' Superannuation, with the suggestion that they meet in Guelph.—Carried.

Moved by Mr. Clark, seconded by J. H. Smith, that the Section bear the expense of the committee on Superannuation.—Carried.

Meeting adjourned 12.15.

WILLIS C. FROATS,

Sec'y, Insp. Sect. O. E. A.

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 6TH.

The meeting assembled at 1 p.m. for registration. 63 members registered first afternoon.

The registration being completed, the President, W. S. Ormiston, of Uxbridge, took the chair, and asked Rev. Mr. Ross to open the meeting with prayer.

Following appointments were made:—

Press Committee—Mr. E. A. Doolittle, Orillia; Mr. McNee, Windsor.

Auditors—T. A. Fischer Lindsay, and R. J. McKessock, Solina.

Communication from Mr. R. W. Doan, Gen. Secretary, re meeting of School Inspectors of S. W. Inspectors' Association held Dec. 23, 1914, as follows: That the Department of Education be requested to make financial year correspond with Academic year, namely, September to June, inclusive.

Following gentlemen were appointed a committee to consider the resolution and report thereon: Col. Farewell, Whitby; Mr. Aikens, Dresden, and Mr. J. H. Laughton, London.

It was moved by Mr. Morriss and seconded by Mr. Shaw, jr., that the proceedings of 1914 session be accepted as printed.—
Carried.

TREASURER'S STATEMENT.

RECEIPTS.

Balance on Hand	\$74.05
Received from Membership	181.50
Received from General Secretary	50.00
	<hr/>
	\$305.55

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid Railways	\$23.50
Paid General Association	57.00
Paid Printing	15.70
Paid Disburs. by Secretary and Allowance....	105.10
On Hand	104.25
	<hr/>
	\$305.55

Bell—Coles, That Treasurer's statement be received and given to the Auditors who are to report thereon to-morrow morning.—Carried.

The President delivered his address.

Moved by Rev. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. McLellan, that the President's address be given to a committee composed of as follows: Rev. J. R. Bell, Mr. E. A. Doolittle, Mr. E. Wickware.

The request was made that, if possible, the committee were to hand in their report Wednesday morning.—Carried.

Major Sharpe, M.P., Uxbridge, read an excellent address on "Inculcating the Spirit of Patriotism in our Public Schools." See page 341 for the subject matter of paper.

The meeting listened very attentively to the Major's paper, and greatly appreciated it, which was evidenced by the applauding at the close thereof, and it was moved by Mr. Shaw, jr., of St. Thomas, and seconded by Col. Farewell, of Whitby, that this meeting wishes to extend their thanks to Major Sharp for his most excellent paper, and that the paper be published in our proceedings.—Carried.

Several gentlemen referred to statements contained in the paper to which the Major replied, giving a perfectly satisfactory reply to all members asking for information.

Dr. Noble, Toronto, referred to the paper being of great interest at this particular period in our history.

The meeting having a few moments of relief granted them by the chair, of which they availed themselves and spent the time in friendly intercourse and getting better acquainted.

The chairman called the meeting to order at 3.55.

Mr. E. G. Smyth, chairman of the Berlin-Waterloo Collegiate and Technical Institute, read an excellent paper on the organization of Manual Training and Domestic Science Schools.

The paper was well received, and a number of the delegates spoke of the manner in which such schools were accomplishing the desired end in their midst. Mr. Spencer, of St. Thomas; Mr. Coles, of Brantford; Mr. McNee, of Windsor; Mr. Smith, of Stratford; Rev. Miller, of St. Marys; Dr. Noble, of Toronto; Rev. Buchanan, of Elmvale; Mr. Mapes, of Walkerville; Mr. Wickware, of Smith's Falls.

Miss Laird and Dr. Merchant being present the chairman extended an invitation to them to say a few words, which they very kindly accepted. The Doctor, in his address, laid particular stress

on the work and its advantages, and referred particularly to Industrial Schools.

Principal Beeton, of Walkerville, referred to the importance of introducing Manual Training into our Public Schools, giving the pupils in attendance in our Public Schools an opportunity to derive some benefit of the work, otherwise a large proportion of our school population would not receive any benefits therefrom.

Some difficulties were mentioned relative to the supply of teachers qualified to take charge of Manual Training Schools.

Notice of motion, that this body recommend that Manual Training Instructors be allowed to qualify as instructors without the requirement of a 2nd class Teaching Certificate.—W. J. Shaw, jr.

Meeting adjourned at 5.30 p.m. to meet Wednesday morning, 9 a.m.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7TH.

The session opened with the President in the chair.

Rev. Mr. Miller opened the meeting by prayer.

The minutes of previous session read and confirmed.

The chairman appointed Rev. Buchanan, Rev. Bell, Mr. McKessock, Dr. Wickware, J. G. Elliot, a nominating committee.

The following motion was introduced:—

That the Association hold its annual meeting within one month following the meeting of the Teachers' Association, so that this body may have an opportunity of consulting such legislation as is recommended by the teachers.—W. J. Shaw, jr.

Mr. J. H. Laughton, a member of the Advisory Council, addressed the meeting relative to the general advantages of the Trustees' Association having a strong representation on the Council, and advised the meeting on matters pertaining to the best method by which the Trustees' Association could bring about the best results in dealing with important questions under consideration at these meetings.

Mr. Doolittle spoke as to the future of the Advisory Council.

Rev. Mr. Buchanan, Rev. Mr. Miller, and Mr. McNee also spoke in reference to the work to be done by this Association working in conjunction with the representatives on the Advisory Council.

The committee on the President's address report as follows:

“Your Committee on correspondence to whom was referred the President's address, beg leave to report as follows:

1. We note with approval the timely reference to the Great War which is now convulsing the world, and express our desire that soon the great principles for which the Allies are contending may be assured to the world.

2. Another matter of special notice is the seeming indifference of Rural School Boards to their duties of their office except when finances are involved. We realize there is sufficient cause for this criticism, and would like to suggest what we believe, in our humble opinions, might go far to remedy the present unsatisfactory state of affairs.

3. The establishment under control of the Department of Associations of Rural Trustees, said Associations to be bounded either by inspectoral lines or by townships, and we would respectively suggest that this Association use its influence with the Department to bring about this very much to be desired change. All of which is respectfully submitted.

J. R. BELL,
Chairman.
E. C. WICKWARE,
E. A. DOOLITTLE.

Moved by Rev. Bell, seconded by Dr. Wickware, that it be adopted and printed in our minutes.—Carried.

The question of the formation of Associations throughout Ontario was discussed, following gentlemen taking part in the discussion: Mr. Mapes, Walkerville; Mr. Smith, Kingsville; Mr. Kirkpatrick, Petrolea; Mr. Colyer, of the Oxford County Association, and a number of gentlemen of the Elgin County Association.

Nominating Committee's report:

President—E. A. Doolittle, Orillia.

Vice-President—Dr. E. H. Wickware, Smith's Falls.

Sec.-Treas.—A. Werner, Elmira.

Director—J. G. Elliot, Kingston.

Buchanan and Elliot, that the report of the Nominating Committee be adopted.—Carried.

The following gentlemen were appointed the Executive Committee for the ensuing year: Dr. Noble, Toronto; R. J. McKessock, Solina; W. D. McLellan, Harriston; J. H. McIntyre, Dutton; A. McNee, Windsor.

Auditors' report.—The Auditors report having examined the Treasurer's statement, and compared it with the vouchers, and found it correct.

McKessock—Fisher, that the Treasurer's statement be accepted.—Carried.

Notice of motion introduced by W. J. Shaw, jr., is to be taken up later on during the session.

Prof. McCready, of the Ontario Agricultural College, gave a very interesting and instructive talk on the Defect of Neglected Educational Service for Urban Life. The Professor, who is always welcome in the Trustees' Department, entered very minutely into how a change could be brought about, the reason why a change such as he mentioned should be brought about, and the general advantages resulting therefrom. The Professor held the careful attention of the meeting for 55 minutes, and a portion of this question, which was being considered, will be brought forward by him again in connection with Schools in Rural Ontario and Its Needs, on Thursday. The meeting adjourned at 12.15 p.m.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON.

A rich treat was in store for this afternoon. Every minute from 2 until 5.30 p.m. was employed.

Dr. Noble, Toronto, gave a paper on "The Human Brain."

The Doctor's paper was a treat to the members, it was well considered, carefully prepared, with exceedingly interesting and instructive material.

Prof. Knight, of Kingston, at the conclusion of the Doctor's address, spoke to the members on the difficulties that present themselves with, Idiots, Imbeciles, Mental Defective, Moral Imbeciles, and Backward Children, which he states form a proportion of about 2%, and gave instances where by the right method being pursued these could be educated so as not to be without sharing some of the blessings of life. The Professor's remarks, following so timely Dr. Noble's paper, were listened to very attentively.

E. A. Doolittle and Rev. Mr. Bell made a few remarks, and thanked the Professor, and further, E. A. Doolittle and Rev. Mr. Bell, that this meeting desires to express to Dr Noble its thanks for the excellent paper, and that it be printed in our minutes.—Carried.

Following resolution was passed:

Moved by E. A. Doolittle, seconded by Major McCaughey, that the Secretary be instructed to have 1,000 copies of Mr. Smyth's paper on Manual Training printed and circulated.

A joint meeting in Trustees' Room of Physical Training, Inspectors' and Trustees' Departments, to consider "How the School Play can be Enriched."

Mr. Elliot, of Kingston, on behalf of Trustees' Department, gave an excellent address, followed by Mr. S. Armstrong, Physical Training Department. Among other things recommended that Trustees procure a pamphlet issued by the City of Toronto School Board on School Grounds. Mr. Armstrong occupying the position of Director of Plays, was able to give the meeting the benefit of his experience.

Inspector Lees, of Peterboro; Principal Mott, Toronto; Inspector McDougal, Petrolea; Principal Kirk, Toronto, addressed the meeting, and each speaker brought out the benefits accruing from well directed plays.

Dr. Barton, Toronto University, spoke in connection with the benefit resulting from joint meetings as were being conducted this afternoon.

E. A. Doolittle—Mr. Coles, that this department has heard with much pleasure the interesting addresses upon School Play, it appreciates its advantages presented and suggests a further discussion at the next meeting of the department. The President and his associates to arrange for speakers.—Carried.

Principal R. A. Gray, Toronto, addressed the joint meeting on "The Pension Bill."

Buchanan—Mapes, that the Trustees' Department endorse the Superannuation Scheme, as it came before the Government.—Carried.

Mr. Doolittle, the incoming President, who was introduced to the meeting, thanked the members for the honour extended to him in electing him as President for such an important branch of the Ontario Educational Association as the Trustees occupied in the General Association.

Buchanan—Miller (Middlemarch), that as the incoming President unavoidably cannot be present to-morrow that our present President preside at the meeting.—Carried.

Meeting adjourned 5.30 to meet Thursday morning.

THURSDAY, APRIL 8TH.

The meeting opened at 9.15 with President W. S. Ormiston in the chair.

Rev. Mr. Bell opened the meeting by prayer.

The minutes of the morning and afternoon session of Wednesday were read. Rev. Mr. Buchanan drew the Secretary's attention to the name recorded as seconder to the Nominating Committee's report. The change was effected whereupon it was moved by Rev. Buchanan, seconded by Mr. J. G. Elliot, that the minutes as corrected be confirmed.—Carried.

Elliot and Edmonds, that this meeting desires to express its appreciation of the services rendered by our Secretary, and that the usual honorarium be granted.—Carried.

The question of considering the notice of motion by this meeting as forwarded to us by the Inspectors' Department relative to the Change of the School Year was fully discussed.

DeBus and Lang, that the motion be referred to the Executive Committee.—Carried.

Mr. Shaw, jr., St. Thomas, spoke enquiring as to his motion re Inspection of Manual Training Schools Teachers' Qualifications.

Mr. Mape, Walkerville, advocated training qualifications.

Mr. Spencer, St. Thomas, referred to the difficulty of procuring teachers at all times satisfactory to the department.

Mr. Wright, St. Thomas, referred to the difficulty experienced in bringing Manual Training Schools into the best working condition, and that no definite fixed rules and regulations either by the department or the school were conducive to best results, St. Thomas having passed through varied experiences which did not leave the best impression on the public, but that good results under the then existing conditions were looked for, and were assured.

Mr. Coles, Brantford, spoke very favourably of the results in Brantford.

Mr. Elliot, Kingston, in speaking of the way it worked out there, said in part, referring to the local difficulties owing to their peculiar situation that exists there, no difficulty, however, was found in procuring an acceptable teaching staff.

Mr. Douglas, Hepworth. The task of inspecting must at all times be arduous and difficult, and the peculiar conditions confronting the Inspector in his rounds which required adjusting must always be dealt with by the Inspector with an expressed purpose of remov-

ing the difficulty and bringing about harmony. All Inspectors do not consider this feature of the work.

The hour being passed which was assigned to Prof. McCready, the meeting agreed to hear the Professor and resume discussion later on during the morning.

Prof. McCready introduced Inspector Lees, of Peterboro, who had recently returned from investigating the question of Consolidated Schools in the State of Indiana.

Inspector Lees took up his work of investigation step by step, as conducted by him and by aid of photographs, which he had collected during his work, confirmed the address; and his report as delivered to the meeting was listened to very earnestly, and after his address he requested the members of the meeting to ask any questions, and Mr. Lees answered a number of questions, among such being: as to the working of such schools in Ontario townships, the boundaries of the School area, the size of School buildings, the use made of such buildings for social purposes, average cost of taking pupils to School, etc., etc.

After the conclusion of his address Prof. McCready spoke on the question of "Rural Ontario Educational Needs." The Professor, who is always interesting and instructive in the Trustees' Department, gave a splendid address on the conditions which will tend to improve our present conditions. He described very minutely, and in a very interesting manner, the things undertaken by Denmark, and carried out successfully there, showing very plainly that Ontario which has not to contend against the natural obstacles and difficulties of this country should be able under good management to exceed Denmark success. A Bulletin issued by the U. S. Bureau of Education, in 1914, No. 22, entitled, "The Danish Folk High School," by Mr. H. W. Foght, and Bulletin No. 30, "Consolidation of Rural Schools and Transportation of Pupils at Public Expense," by Mr. A. C. Monahan, should be read, showing the progress which is being made in other countries in these particular matters.

Wright—Elliot, this meeting thanks Inspector Lee and Prof. McCready for their most excellent addresses, and express their appreciation of them.—Carried.

Mapes—Elliot, that the motion introduced by Mr. Shaw, jr., re Manual Training Schools, be laid over for a year.

McNee—Spencer, that the committee to wait on the Minister of Education re any questions pertaining to the Trustees' Section, shall be the officers of the ensuing year.—Carried.

Rev. Buchanan referred to the removal of the Advisory Council by the Educational Department, and the question was spoken to by a few other members.

Spencer—Mistele, this meeting is desirous of expressing its great appreciation rendered by the Toronto Press during our sessions, and we thank them for it.—Carried.

Elliot—Buchanan, we cannot separate before expressing our sincere thanks to President Ormiston. He has proven himself a splendid chairman, and much of the success of our meetings—which have indeed been pleasant—are due to him.—Carried unanimously.

President Ormiston replied saying in part that no one could fully realize the work undertaken by the Trustees in Ontario unless it has fallen on his shoulders to direct its affairs for a year. He had done his part willingly, and hoped much good would result from this and future meetings.

The meeting concluded by singing God Save Our King.

MINUTES OF HOME SCIENCE SECTION.

APRIL 7TH.

The Home Science Section met in Room 51, University College, at 9.30 a.m., Wednesday, April 7th, with the President, Miss Eadie, in the chair.

After the minutes of the last annual meeting were read and adopted, the financial report was given, showing a balance on hand of \$43.45. Misses Neville and McCally were appointed Auditors, and a Nominating Committee was formed: Misses Neville, Laird, B. Miller, Ockley and Roddick. Miss Pattinson acted as Press Reporter.

The President's address was most able and forcible, being based on reports of work in London, Eng., on elementary schools, and dealing with some of the problems that to-day are confronting all workers in Household Science. The address in full will be found in the report of the General Association.

Miss Noble followed with a talk on "Housecraft Work." Housecraft and Mothercraft are each one phase of home-making, and no one doubts now that every girl should have some knowledge of

house work, and some training for making a home. Miss Noble then proceeded to outline the work in Housecraft as it is taken up at the Riverdale Settlement, Toronto. The work given must necessarily be of such a nature as can be carried out in the homes of the students, girls of from eight to twelve years of age, many of whom live in one and two roomed shacks. Work is commenced in the kitchen with talks on wall covering, plumbing, sinks, gas stoves, etc., and proceeds to practical work in bathroom, bedroom, etc. Housecraft work is preparatory to another course, the Home Cadets, with older girls. In this course, among other things, the girls are taught to prepare and serve meals at a low cost. In both of these courses, but little equipment is required, and excellent results are being obtained.

As Miss Powell was unable to be present, her paper on "Mothercraft" was read by Miss Wright. The term "Mothercraft" well expresses the nature of the course given at the Technical School, Toronto, for women who require training not only in being a mother, but also in various details of planning and arranging the work of a house. Very important is the course given on the care of children, the clothing, bathing, feeding, etc., of infants and children, as well as the care of the mother herself. The student is taught to buy and market properly, economy in many ways being practised; hygiene and sanitation are discussed and applied to the work carried on in the home. The students are eager to learn, and profit by their lessons, and as a consequence many homes are the better for the course in Mothercraft.

As there was a half hour free before noon, some delayed items of business were discussed.

It was moved by Miss Laird, seconded by Miss Ockley, that the practice of the last two years of setting aside a sum not to exceed \$20 for the payment of travelling expenses of members of the Executive, be continued.—Carried.

The report of the Information Bureau was left over for future discussion.

Miss Eadie brought up the subject of "Canning Clubs" and "Organized Home Care of the Sick," and offered literature on the subject to the Section.

Mrs. Strathy then made an appeal for the interest of the teachers in the League of the Daughters of the Empire. She described the aims and purposes of the League, telling of some of the work done by it in connection with the War, and pointed out the many

advantages for teachers who enjoyed the privileges conferred on them by belonging to the association.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

The meeting was called to order at 2 p.m.

The programme for the afternoon consisted of ten minute papers on "Various Phases of Household Science Work in High Schools, Urban and Rural Schools," presented by Misses B. Miller, M. Miller, Reynolds, Templeton and Kay.

Space will not permit of a discussion of each paper in detail. Some of the points taken up were the correlation of school garden work with Household Science, e.g., in canning tomatoes; a plea for longer hours for cooking classes, some of the teachers finding it impossible to cover all the ground indicated in the new curriculum in the time allotted; a system of giving marks for Household Science as for other subjects in the regular school reports; difficulties with mixed classes where students in the same class have had different previous work; methods of arousing interest in the work done in schools, e.g., Parents' and Teachers' Clubs, are useful in bringing about many reforms. Knitting had been taught by several teachers in their sewing classes, and had proved very interesting as well as useful.

Some excellent samples of work done by her students in the sewing classes were shown by Miss Reynolds.

Prof. Black, of the Agricultural College of Manitoba, who was present, was asked to speak to the Section, and gave a very interesting talk. His message to the teachers was to endeavour to meet the conditions under which they worked, and he went on to give a brief description of the work done in his college. Among other courses mentioned he spoke of the short course in Home Nursing for women in country districts, and for which there were one hundred registrations the first day, and the course in Cooking for men, homesteaders, etc., for which thirty-seven registered and did excellent work. He expressed the hope that in the Dominion a federal bureau of education would be established, and also a federal superintendent of education; the work to correlate the work of the various provinces, and to be combined into work along federal lines. In this scheme Household Science would be an important phase. Since Household Science is fundamental in the development of our nation it should take its place as one of the

most dignified of callings to-day, and the teachers were enjoined to promote its best interests. At the close of Prof. Black's address a cordial invitation was extended to his audience to visit the college at Winnipeg.

Mr. Wood, Principal of the Collegiate in Fort William, also said a few words. He had come with but one object in view—to help his Household Science teachers. He emphasized the value of making Household Science and Manual Training compulsory, and also of equal value with other subjects in the school curriculum.

APRIL 8TH.

The third session opened at 10 a.m.

The report of the Nominating Committee was brought in and carried.

A discussion of the Bureau of Information left over from Wednesday followed. Mr. Leake said that the names of schools, teachers, grades and equipments could be obtained in the yearly report of the Minister of Education, and suggested that the Section should communicate with the deputy ministers of all the provinces re the lists of teachers, etc., in Household Science. He also mentioned four bulletins by Andrews of New York on Home-Making concerning the Teachers, etc., in the whole United States.

A suggestion was made by Miss Eadie that we might begin to work on sequence of hand work from the kindergarten up, and that a committee might be appointed to look into this. It was also suggested by Mr. Leake that the committee when formed might also look into the manual of sewing with a view to its improvement, etc.

A general discussion followed in which Mr. Leake said that the Household Science teachers themselves are much to blame for the lack of co-operation with teachers of other subjects, especially along the line of needle work; that too much attention has been concentrated on cooking and work in the kitchen, whereas needle-work can be done in many schools where equipment for Household Science work can never be adequately established. Mr. Leake strongly condemned Toronto Household Science and Manual Training teachers for their lack of interest in the Ontario Educational Association, and suggested that a clause be included in the report of the Minister of Education, as to whether the Household Science teachers are members of the Home Science Section.

Then came a continuation of Wednesday's programme, ten minute papers again being presented. Dr. Helen MacMurchy, who was present, was asked to say a few words, and Mrs. Parker gave a short talk on the Girl Guide Movement, explaining its origin and aims, and showing how the work of the Girl Guides and that of Household Science teachers are closely related. The movement has grown rapidly, and there are now four thousand members in Canada.

Miss Ockley gave a very interesting talk on the newest phase of Household Science introduced by the government, i.e., the summer school course given for the special training for teachers in rural and village schools. Special emphasis was laid on the point that the Household Science teacher should correlate her work with that of other teachers, and on ways of carrying on Household Science work without equipment, credit marks being given for home work and such topics being discussed as sources of food materials, and prices, etc., school and home gardens, methods of transportation of foodstuffs, etc.

Miss Rundle, a graduate of the summer school course at Toronto University in 1914, gave a description of her work and of the various plans used to interest students and parents in school work. But little sewing was done, but darning was taught and simple garments made.

Miss Chapman described the way in which Household Science work is being carried to home makers—an important phase of college extension work. Travelling teachers are sent out to groups of Women's Institutes within easy reach of each other, and courses of lessons are given at a moderate cost. The women have been much interested, and good work accomplished.

An outline of work in the Galt and London Collegiates was given by Miss Crowe, and various plans for meeting and overcoming difficulties were brought out.

Miss Auten gave an outline of work done in some American cities which was interesting to contrast with work done here.

In the talk given by Miss Milne, a teacher in the first grade public school, it was shown what can be done by any grade teacher where no Household Science is taught. Elementary points can be taught, e.g., dangers of dust, care of woods, economy along various lines, etc. The lack of a supervisor for the public schools was emphasized.

As the time was growing short, Miss Pritchard cut short her paper and told how she had made use of opportunities at hand during the school year. Last fall there was an abundance of apples and other fruits which were practically being wasted. Much of these were preserved in jams and jellies, etc., for the use of hospitals, the poor, and for Xmas cheer for the soldiers. Some sewing was done, fifty night-gowns being made for the Belgian relief fund, and the school children had washed over one hundred pounds of wool, and knitted many scarves which had been sent to the war. On the whole Miss Pritchard may well be proud of her year's work.

Meeting adjourned.

MRS. E. L. GAUSBY,
Secretary-Treasurer.

MINUTES OF PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE SECTION.

APRIL 7TH.

The Section met in Room 32 Mining Building, with the President, Dr. Helen MacMurehy, in the chair. In the President's address, reference was made to the recent death of the Vice-President, Dr. W. H. Doherty, who had meant so much to this Section of the O. E. A. His work, not only for the children of this city, but for the province at large, has been such that it will be hard to find one to fill his place. At the suggestion of the President, the Secretary was instructed to write a letter of condolence to his widow. The President also referred to an editorial from "The Educational Times," referring to compulsory military training in the public schools, and heartily endorsed this method of training our boys for defence against militarism.

Mrs. D. C. Wilson, of Parkhill, read a most interesting paper on "Medical Inspection in the Rural Schools," and it was moved and carried that the paper be published in the annual report of the Association. An interesting discussion followed, in which Prof. A. P. Knight, Dr. James L. Hughes, Dr. Alex. MacKay and Principal W. F. Kirk took part. It was also recommended that this paper be published in the "Ontario Medical Journal" and the "Farmers' Sun" for the benefit of those in the rural districts. Dr. MacKay gave some very startling figures, as he spoke for a

few minutes, on what was being done along the line of medical inspection in the Toronto schools, stating that in 1914 there were 25,382 complete physical examinations, while the nurses had given treatment to 47,690 cases in the homes of the school children. Other interesting figures were given that will be published at a later date.

Dr. James L. Hughes gave a very interesting address on "Military Training in Schools." A most interesting discussion followed, led by A. J. Laughton, Dr. J. W. Barton and W. F. Kirk.

In the afternoon at the combined meeting of Inspectors', Trustees' and Physical Training Sections, S. H. Armstrong, Supervisor of the Toronto Playgrounds, read a very instructive paper on "How the School Play can be Enriched," and the paper was most ably discussed by Principal N. MacDougall, of Petrolea.

The election of officers resulted as follows:—

Honorary President—Dr. James L. Hughes.

President—Prof. A. P. Knight.

Vice-President—Mrs. C. D. Wilson.

Secretary-Treasurer—F. J. Smith.

Director—A. J. Laughton.

Councillors—Principal W. F. Kirk, Inspector W. F. Chapman, Dr. J. W. Barton, M. T. Graham, and Miss E. J. Deymon.

MINUTES OF THE MANUAL ARTS' SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

The first session opened at 2.00 p.m. in Room 11, with President J. H. Wilkinson in the chair.

The minutes of the last session were read and adopted.

The President in his address commented on the overlapping of the various sections and departments, and suggested meetings of Sections for the forenoons and of departments for the afternoons. He emphasized the importance of close observation as a necessary basis for representation by drawing or by modelling. There should be greater correlation of Manual Training, with most, if not all, of the other subjects on the curriculum. Discussion followed.

Mr. S. B. Hatch demonstrated clearly his method of teaching freehand perspective to High School pupils. He showed the development of solids, as boxes, books, houses, etc. His device for teaching the various appearances of the circle was unique, simple and effective. From this grew the cylinder and allied forms.

Miss Giles voiced the opinion of Art teachers in her reference to the scope of the work as outlined in the curriculum, and to the handicaps under which many work in unsuitable rooms, and inadequate equipment.

Her address on Art in the Middle School was abundantly illustrated by the work of her own pupils from Brockville Collegiate Institute. She explained what work was done during the various seasons, and how conventional designs grew out of the drawings from Nature.

These addresses provoked helpful discussion from the members of the Section.

The session closed at 4.30.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 7TH.

A morning session was held.

Mr. A. Styles, in his paper, described very minutely the Ideal Manual Training Room, and its equipment. Separate rooms were advocated for teacher's office, cloak room, lumber room, drafting room, finishing room, and a room for completed work, as well as a spacious room for the bench work. On motion Mr. Styles was requested to prepare his address for publication in the minutes.

Mr. R. N. Shortill introduced the subject, "Ways and Means of Supplying the Demand for Manual Training Teachers." He showed that thoroughly competent teachers might be obtained by so modifying the course of study in the High Schools and Training Schools that boys showing special aptitude in, and liking for, the work might devote more time to that work, keeping ever in mind their preparation for teaching the work. This course should be as cultural as any other. It would be advisable that a year or so should be spent in teaching the regular course, before the exclusive teaching of Manual Training. These views found sympathetic endorsement in the discussion that followed.

Mr. A. N. Scarrow, in considering the "Present Status of Manual Training," claimed that Manual Training had made more rapid advancement during its fifteen years than would be possible with

any other subject. He advocated a higher recognition of it as a culture subject in the High Schools and Colleges.

APRIL 8TH.

In the closing session on Thursday forenoon Miss Powell led in the discussion of the difficulties in teaching Art. She illustrated the principles of perspective drawing in their application to the pupils' out-of-doors work of landscape drawing. She explained and illustrated the use of the finder to the student in selecting the thing or group from among the bewildering number of things before him. Balance and proportion must be maintained to produce satisfaction.

In the discussion as to "Where and in What Way Manual Training Should Begin in the Public Schools," there was unanimity of opinion that it should continue from the kindergarten throughout the school course, and with whatever materials were available, and of interest to the child.

The Treasurer's report showed a balance from the preceding year of \$13.44.

The report of the Nominating Committee was presented by Mr. Searrow, who moved its adoption; it was carried and was as follows:—

Hon. Pres.—J. H. Wilkinson, Toronto Normal School.

Pres.—T. W. Kidd, Riverdale C. I., Toronto.

Vice-Pres.—R. N. Shortill, Oakwood C. I., Toronto.

Sec.-Treas.—Edward Faw, Riverdale C. I., Toronto.

Councillors—Geo. L. Johnston, S. B. Hatch, A. J. Painter.

The Sec.-Treas. was appointed as representative to the Board of Directors for the Manual Arts' Section.

EDWARD FAW,
Sec.-Treas.

MINUTES OF THE CONTINUATION SECTION.

APRIL 6TH.

Meeting began at 2.30 p.m. in Room 12, with Mr. W. H. Stewart in the chair.

The minutes of the last meeting were read by the Secretary and adopted.

It was moved by Mr. A. W. Cameron and seconded by Mr. J. R. Pickering, that Mr. Allen and Miss S. O'Leary be Auditors.—Carried.

Moved by J. R. Pickering, seconded by A. C. Bernath, that Mr. A. W. Cameron be Press Representative for the meetings.

Correspondence was read from Secretary R. W. Doan *re* harmonizing the academic with the financial year, and it was decided by resolution of Messrs. Bernath and Pickering, that it be considered with resolutions for 1915.

President W. H. Stewart followed with an address on "Continuation Schools," which reviewed the history of their development to a present state of permanence, and mentioned a few of the problems to be solved in their successful management.

Mr. H. Gray, B.A., then showed how Geometry could be introduced and developed so as to put the student into possession of the fundamental notions which will make the further study of the subject less perplexing.

APRIL 7TH.

Meeting opened at 9.30.

The Auditors' report was presented, and by motion of Mr. J. S. Smith and Mr. J. R. Pickering, was adopted.

Moved by J. R. Pickering and seconded by Mr. A. W. Cameron, that the travelling expenses of the Secretary to the meetings of the O. E. A. and to other meetings where such expenses are not paid by the General Secretary, be paid out of the funds of this Section.—Carried.

Moved by J. R. Pickering, seconded by G. A. Clark, that a copy of Mr. C. W. Butcher's resolution *re* information to be given to the teachers of the Province by the Associate Examiners, be submitted to the various sections of the College and H. S. Dept. for consideration.—Carried.

Moved by G. A. Clark, seconded by J. R. Pickering, that resolutions two and three of this year be again brought before the Department of Education.—Carried.

Moved by Mr. J. Smith and seconded by G. A. Clark, that resolutions of the South Western Ontario Inspectors' Association be adopted and forwarded to Secretary Froats.—Carried.

Moved by J. R. Pickering, seconded by Miss S. O'Leary, that we express our appreciation of the action of the Department of Edu-

cation in revising the T. T. for the Midsummer Departmental Examinations so as to make more time for the teaching of the spring term, and that we express the hope that the T. T. be further revised so as to occupy less time.—Carried.

Moved by J. Smith, seconded by S. O'Leary, that G. A. Clark, J. Smith, C. Summers be a committee to present the resolutions of 1915 to the Education Department.—Lost.

Moved by J. Smith, of Burlington, seconded by J. Smith, of New Hamburg, that J. R. Pickering, G. A. Clark and C. Summers be the committee to present said resolutions to the Education Department.—Carried.

J. R. Pickering moved and J. M. Smith seconded, that the addresses of the President, W. H. Stewart, Mr. G. A. Clark, be incorporated into the proceedings of the O. E. A.—Carried.

The afternoon session, begun at 1.45, was taken up with an address by Inspector J. P. Hoag on "How to Eliminate Waste from the School."

A copy of this may be found in the proceedings of the O. E. A.

A joint meeting with the College and High School Section occupied the remainder of the afternoon.

APRIL 8TH.

Meeting began at 9.15 a.m. with a paper on "How the Continuation School can best serve the Community," by Miss Ruple Taite. A discussion on inter-town games followed.

A paper on "Discipline," prepared by C. W. Butcher, was read by the Secretary.

Officers for 1915-16 were then elected.

Hon. President—G. K. Mills, Inspector.

President—S. O'Leary.

Vice-President—Miss Ruple Taite.

Secretary—C. Summers.

Councillors—Messrs. G. A. Clark, J. R. Pickering, G. Griffiths, Miss M. F. Stevenson, A. C. Bernath, A. W. Cameron.

MINUTES OF THE SIMPLIFIED SPELLING SECTION.

APRIL 7TH.

The meeting was held in Room 37 on Wednesday afternoon. President William Houston, M.A., occupied the chair.

The Secretary-Treasurer read the minutes of the previous meeting, which were approved, and submitted the statement of receipts and expenditures with vouchers. In the absence of the Corresponding Secretary, he read messages from Lord Bryce and Mr. Goldstone, M.P., communicated thru the Secretary of the British Society; and also laid on the table the petition to the British Premier to appoint a Royal Commission to inquire into and report upon the need, practicability and means of reforming English spelling. The petition at the time bore the signatures of over a hundred prominent educationists—heads of universities, colleges, normal and model schools, large public schools and boards of education. It should be said that Sir Sandford Fleming and some of the other signatories wished it to be understood that they were not signing in their representative capacity.

Officers elected:

President—L. E. Horning, M.A., Ph.D., Victoria University, Toronto.

Secretary-Treasurer—John Dearness, M.A., London, Ont.

Corresponding Secretary—Alexander McQueen, Principal Victoria School, London, Ont.

Committee—William Scott, B.A., W. J. Summerby, I.P.S., W. M. Metford, J. S. Lane, B.A., Stephen Martin, B.A., Robert Alexander, Professor D. R. Keays.

Mr. William Houston, M.A., spoke on the subject, "Enlarging the Areas of Constant Orthography," an example being the unifying of words like proceed, precede, exceed, recede, etc.

Mr. W. F. MacLean, B.A., M.P., Editor of the Toronto World, delivered an address on the "Waste due to the Conventional Spelling from the Publisher's and Business Man's Viewpoint." Elegant speech is one of the highest accomplishments. Language is fluid, ehanging all the time, but its present printed form is not of the slightest assistance in maintaining or elevating the purity of speech because the spelling is fixed. The writing, type-writing and print-

ing of unnecessary, silent, worse than merely useless letters, is somewhere between five and ten per cent. of the total cost. In time, paper and machinery this Province alone is losing thousands of dollars a day in spelling-waste.

Dr. L. E. Horning delivered an address on "The Duty of the Individual." There are men who laugh at a woman's lack of courage to wear a two-year-old hat who have not the courage to better the conventional spelling of a word in their own correspondence. It ought not to require much courage to adopt the shorter of any two forms that are allowed by our dictionaries.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

At a joint meeting with the Public School Section Geo. H. Danton, M.A., Ph.D., of New York, took up "The Case for a More Scientific Spelling of English and the Duty of the Teacher in the Matter." He was enthusiastically thanked for his address which he was requested to submit to the committee of the joint Sections for publication in the minutes.

MINUTES OF ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE.

APRIL 6TH.

The Ontario Teachers' Alliance met in the East Hall, University of Toronto, on Tuesday, April 6th, at 4.30 p.m., with the President, Mr. E. S. Hogarth, B.A., in the chair, and about thirty members present.

The minutes of the annual meeting, 1914, were read and approved.

As there was no business arising out of the minutes, the President called for the Secretary's report, which was seconded by H. Ward, B.A., and received.

The Treasurer, J. W. Rogers, M.A., read the financial statement to April 3rd, 1915, which showed a balance of \$110.21. He also read a recommendation of the Executive, that the honorarium of the past Secretary of one hundred dollars for the year ending June, 1914, and an honorarium of fifty dollars to the Secretary for the current year ending June, 1915, be paid. This was seconded by Mr. G. A. Cole, and carried.

A Nominating Committee consisting of Messrs. Moore, Davidson, Kelly and Cole was appointed to report on Wednesday afternoon.

Messrs. J. W. Rogers and W. L. Dixon moved the following resolution: "That the Executive of the O. T. A. make what provision is possible with the General Board of the O. E. A. to secure Sir James Yoxall, M.A., M.P., of London, England, as speaker at the general meeting next year, and that the O. T. A. would be willing to pay part of the expenses."—Carried.

Messrs. Rogers and Cole moved that the offices of Secretary and Treasurer be not combined.—Carried.

The President announced that the Department of Education considers the fall of the year the more desirable time for the publication of "Schools and Teachers."

Discussion on the proposed change followed, and the opinion of the meeting was, that before this arrangement should be carried out it would be necessary to know whether the records contained in "Schools and Teachers" would furnish information to end of December or to end of June of the next year. The President said he would bring the matter to the notice of the department, and report.

The President requested all members of the O. T. A. who had not already registered in any other Section to register with the Secretary, paying forty cents towards the fund of the O. E. A., and twenty-five cents for vising certificates. Later, the General Secretary suggested that if the members of this Section had not already paid fees in other Sections, they pay them to him direct.

APRIL 7TH.

At 3.30 p.m. the O. T. A. held a joint meeting with the Public School Section in the East Hall, at which L. E. Embree, M.A., LL.D., spoke on "The Ontario Teachers' Alliance—Its Aims and Claims."

He said the aims of the Alliance were to strengthen, uphold, and defend teachers in the discharge of their duties, and to endeavour to secure better conditions in every direction for those in the profession.

Through its influence there had been a general increase in teachers' salaries throughout the Province.

It had been largely instrumental in having a Teachers' Superannuation Bill brought forward by the Ontario Legislature.

It had been the means of having the Department of Education issue the publication of "Schools and Teachers," and distribute it to the teachers of Ontario. This comprehensive record had proved an exceptional aid to teachers, particularly those of rural districts, as it furnished detailed statistics of each school in the Province, which were of value to teachers seeking positions.

He appealed to teachers of all ranks in city and country to rally and uphold the O. T. A. in its work.

A vote of thanks, moved by H. Ward, B.A., and seconded by M. Kerr, B.A., was tendered Dr. Embree for his able address.

A motion was passed to have Dr. Embree's address published in the minutes of the O. E. A.

The President reported that he had received assurance from the Department of Education that the records furnished in "Schools and Teachers" would be complete to date of publication.

The Nominating Committee reported as follows:—

President—E. S. Hogarth, B.A., Collegiate Institute, Hamilton.

1st Vice-Pres.—L. E. Embree, M.A., LL.D., 33 Beatty Ave., Toronto.

2nd Vice-Pres.—J. Dearness, M.A., Vice-Prin. Normal School, London.

Secretary—Miss Margaret Meston, Ryerson Public School, Hamilton.

Treasurer—Joseph Whyte Rogers, M.A., Public School Inspector, Toronto.

The meeting then adjourned.

M. MESTON,
Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE LEAGUE OF EMPIRE SECTION.

The League of Empire Section met in Room 51, University of Toronto.

In the absence of Principal Hutton, Dr. James L. Hughes took the chair and addressed the meeting.

The minutes of the last meeting of the Council were read and confirmed.

The report of the General Secretary for Canada, Mrs. H. S. Strathy, was read and is as follows:

The League was originally founded in 1901 in London, England, and is an Association of men and women banded together for Imperial educational work throughout the British Empire, with its head offices in London, England, and with representatives in all parts of the Overseas Dominions and Dependencies of the Crown. The work of the League in Great Britain has many branches, including Correspondence, Affiliation of Schools throughout the Empire and the holding of Imperial Educational Conferences, the first of which was held in 1907, the second in 1912, and the third is planned to meet in Toronto, at the invitation of the Ontario Government, in 1916. A History of the British Empire, and Imperial Text Books have also been prepared by the League and, in view of the changed conditions brought about by the great war, they are now issuing a series of historical studies, the first of which will be ready in the autumn.

In Canada, in the last twelve months, the work has grown very materially. There are now over 100 schools linked to all parts of the Empire through our head office in London, and in this way thousands of scholars in Canada are brought into communication with other boys and girls around the globe.

In England, since the war began, the League has worked hard in sending supplies of clothes and comforts to the men at the front, to the hospitals and to the men of the navy.

In Canada it has been thought best to confine the activities of the League to its strictly educational sphere, and to leave its members free to devote themselves individually to the work of the other patriotic societies. The League, in accordance with this policy, started a movement to provide the Canadian contingents while abroad with newspaper clippings gathered and pasted into blank budgets by the school children. The Toronto Board of Education gave splendid encouragement to this plan, and the teachers and pupils in the Toronto schools have worked at it magnificently. Over 70 budgets go forward from Toronto alone weekly, and the men write with much appreciation of the pleasure the work of the schools gives them. Many schools in other cities and towns throughout Canada are now doing the same patriotic service for the soldiers, and the War Contingent Association sends the volumes forward to the trenches. Through the efforts of the League at least 500 budgets go forward weekly to the men at the front, and to the soldiers in the hospitals.

The League has this winter placed over 7,000 cards in the schools of Ontario bearing Lord Roberts' Message to the children, "Why

England is at War." With the sanction of the Minister of Education, and through the kindness of some of the friends of the League, all Ontario School Inspectors have been supplied with this card, who have applied for it, and many words of warm approval of Lord Roberts' Message have been received at the Toronto office.

During the winter members of the League have addressed Teachers' Institutes and Schools on "The Causes of the War" and "The Work of the League." The League have this spring offered a prize to the value of \$25.00, open to all pupils of secondary schools in Canada, for the best poem on "The Great War." Particulars of this competition were sent to the schools on the 20th March; the poem must be sent in by May 15th, and the decision will be announced by the first of June.

From the head office in England we have just received an outline of a scheme for the study of Imperial history to be taken up in the coming school year. In the words of the circular sent to us from England, the League, realizing that enthusiasm is a priceless educational asset, and believing the present unprecedented outburst of loyalty may be so directed as to be of permanent value to the Empire, is of opinion that this is the right moment to impress upon the rising generation the duty of the adequately informed as to the history of the Empire. We in Canada have been asked to assist the scheme by providing two articles for the Federal Magazine on Canadian history, and we hope to do so. We feel that when the plan is matured it may be of great value in the literary and discussion clubs of our high schools.

Our Hon. Secretary for England writes informing us that the next annual meeting of the Imperial Union of Teachers will take place July 17th, 1915, in London, and inviting all members of the League who can do so to be present. The programme and the provisional papers for the Imperial Conference in Toronto in 1916 will be dealt with then, and after the meeting there will be a series of visits to historical places and houses, such as take place each summer.

The Imperial Conference, as first planned for Toronto, promised to be of great Imperial usefulness, but the crisis which has intervened since then gives it a value new and immeasurably greater. When the representatives of the Mother Country, India and the Dominions, come together they will be inspired by the sense of closer kinship that now exists in all parts of the Empire. An Imperial gathering must take a new and wider view of our

responsibilities since the work of re-construction always falls on the universities and schools, in so far as they mould the citizens of the Empire, a gathering of teachers and pupils of the whole Empire must, we feel, be of great interest and importance, and for this gathering we ask the interest and support of every educationalist in Canada.

The report of the Secretary for Ontario, Mr. H. J. Baker, was read.

The reports of Mrs. Strathy and Mr. Baker were adopted.

Under the order of business, "Election of Officers,"

It was moved by Mrs. VanKoughnet, seconded by Mrs. Dewart, that the present officers be and are hereby re-elected.—Carried.

Miss Standish addressed the League on "Interprovincial Correspondence." Dr. Tilley, of Bowmanville, Inspector Stevens, of Lindsay, and several other delegates spoke of the great value of the League of Empire to rural schools.

The meeting was then adjourned.

The following are the officers of the League of Empire, Canadian branch:—

Chairman for Canada—Principal Hutton, LL.D., Toronto.

Vice-Presidents for Canada—Col. Geo. T. Denison, Toronto; James L. Hughes, LL.D., Toronto.

Hon. Sec'y for Canada—Mrs. H. S. Strathy, 71 Queen's Park, Toronto.

Hon. Sec'y for Ontario—Henry Baker, Esq., 23 Roxborough St. W., Toronto.

Council for Ontario—The Lieut.-Governor of Ontario and Mrs. Hendrie, The Premier of Ontario, His Grace Archbishop McNeil, The Bishop of Toronto, Hon. R. A. Pyne, LL.D., Hon. I. B. Lucas, Hon. W. J. Hanna, Hon. T. W. McGarry Hon. Francis Cochrane, Sir Adam Beck, H. S. Strathy, Esq., Sir John Willison, Dean Pakenham, Mrs. Hearst, Mrs. Pyne, Lady Falconbridge, President Falconer, Major Leonard, C. C. James, Esq., C.M.G., Mrs. Arthur VanKoughnet, Mr. and Mrs. Hartley Dewart, Mrs. W. T. White, Mrs. Scott Raff, H. M. Mowat, Esq., W. K. George, Esq., Principal Scott, Prof. Kylie.

Executive Committee—Mrs. H. S. Strathy, Mr. and Mrs. H. H. Dewart, Prof. Kylie, Mr. Robert W. Doan, Principal Hutton, Miss Jean Graham, Principal Colbeck, Dean Pakenham, Mrs. A. VanKoughnet, Miss J. Griffin, Miss Walsh, Dr. J. L. Hughes, Mrs. Scott Raff, Miss F. M. Standish, Miss L. K. Wooley, Prof. Geo. Smith, Mr. Vineent Massey.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF THE

Ontario Educational Association

1914-1915.

Receipts.

Balance from last Statement.....	\$ 399 55
Membership Fees	557 25
Advertisements	134 00
Ontario Government Grant	1,400 00
Bank Interest.....	44 62
Credit on Printing Programmes	50
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	\$2,535 92
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Disbursements.

Expenses Convention.....	\$ 25 50
Printing Circulars, Letter Heads, etc	59 20
Postage, Cartage, etc	13 45
Secretaries of Departments	70 00
Special Grant Trustees Department.....	50 00
Reporting Proceedings and Lectures.....	33 00
Lecture Expenses, Prof. Cope and Prof Findlay	84 70
Printing Proceedings	771 70
Printing Programmes for 1915.....	166 00
Commission for Procuring Advertisements.....	33 50
General Secretary, Salary	200 00
Treasurer, Salary, year ending April, 1914.....	50 00
“ “ “ “ “ “ 1915.....	50 00
Railway Fares, Executive Committee.....	105 80
Balance.....	823 07
	<hr/>
	\$2,535 92
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W. J. HENDRY,
Treasurer.

R. W. DOAN,
General Secretary.

We, the undersigned auditors, have examined the books of the treasurer, Mr. W. J. Hendry, and also the summary of receipts and expenditures, and find them to agree with the vouchers. We find the balance on hand at date to be eight hundred and twenty-three dollars and seven cents (\$823.07).

JOHN DEARNESS,
D. YOUNG,
Auditors.

Toronto, April 6th, 1915.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY HON. R. A. PYNE, MINISTER OF EDUCATION.


Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen,—It gives me great pleasure to meet you again at this your annual gathering. I begin to feel, however, having been here so often, that I may almost consider myself an annual fixture on this platform. I always consider it a privilege and an honour to be asked to say a few words of welcome to your members on behalf of the Province. A meeting of this kind, consisting of teachers or of those connected with the schools, all of whom lead a strenuous life, ought to be an advantage and a pleasure to you. It is like a recreation oasis in the great desert of hard work, and I hope you will enjoy the little recreation you may have, and succeed in the good work you are trying to accomplish.

It might not be out of place for me to say a word or two regarding the interest lately taken by the public men of the day in the teachers' welfare. I had the privilege of introducing a Bill in the Legislature last week, looking to the establishment of a pension scheme, that I trust will be of use to the teachers when it becomes an accomplished fact, as I hope it will in time. A scheme for pensioning teachers is a very important matter. In some countries where it has been tried in years gone by it did not prove a success. A great deal of time has been given to this subject in this Province. Well, I may say it needs great consideration. To my mind, thorough actuarial supervision is required to ensure success. It would be an unfortunate thing if, after looking forward to some provision for old age, the plan fell down in operation and disappeared like a myth. In order to avoid any such misfortune time has been taken to try and get a real scheme that will work out successfully, and be of advantage to the teaching profession of the Province. It has been our policy for some years to promote the interests of the teaching profession, and by giving the people an adequate supply of more highly trained and better educated

teachers to justify the demand that they shall be properly remunerated for their work. One of the inducements to provide a pension system is the object of making the profession more permanent and enduring. The people at large will benefit by this in the end, because the personnel of the teaching profession has been too much of a transient character, and the profession itself has been too often made a stepping stone to other occupations. If we can make teaching a more permanent profession I think we will have accomplished something. I hope, and trust, when the pension scheme is established in this Province that that will be the result; and if so it will be to the great advantage not only of the teachers but of the people themselves.

At every moment of our present existence, the question that runs through all minds is: What is going on over the seas? I think the teachers in the schools of the Province are to be congratulated on this fact: That the effects of their teaching have not been lost, if we are to look at the large number of young men who are enlisting to fight the battles of the Empire,—who have been taught in all our educational institutions love of home, loyalty and patriotism, lessons which are bearing fruit to-day in the struggle to preserve the liberties of this land of ours. We can take at least that consolation out of the terrible war, the Titanic struggle now going on in Europe.

One of the first things that strikes me is the consolation that we might take as Canadians. We Canadians have delighted in our double citizenship, the privilege of being citizens of Canada and citizens of the great Empire. Now, some of the fruits of this war, and the lessons that might be taken from it, which are consoling in some degree, are these: You must remember when Confederation of the British provinces on this continent was brought about, and these scattered communities were united into one Dominion, there were many misgivings about the future and little rumours floating through the air, as my good friend Sir George Foster could tell us, that the bond was not an enduring one, that it would not bear the test of the strain that would come upon it. But we have passed, ladies and gentlemen, through many critical times in this Dominion, and it has borne the strain and the stress; after nearly fifty years of existence here we are to-day with this fact facing us, that on the 4th of August, when war was declared every Province in this Dominion began to make contributions to the Old Land. Starting with the Dominion itself, the movement was followed by



Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia,—the whole nine provinces joining together to make their contributions to help the Motherland in her great struggle for liberty and freedom, not only in this Empire but in this whole world. Now, I say we as Canadians can take great consolation from the fact that the Confederation of the Dominion has not been a failure.

Let me go a little further, ladies and gentlemen, and speak of the lesson that we may take from the British Empire to-day. Since the 4th of August what has happened? You know what was said about the British Empire; that a great mistake had been made when we drew the bonds of Empire closer and that we would be humiliated in the dust when the first great strain came upon us. Could it ever come in a more marked degree than it did on the 4th of August? And what was the result? Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand—yes, and India: all rising as one man to fight the battles of the Empire. We have heard enough of the possible decadence of the British Empire. So that is the second lesson of consolation that we as Canadians may take out of this war.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, let me repeat what I came here to say, and that is to give you a cordial welcome to Toronto, the capital of the Province, on behalf of the Government of which I am a member. The message I bring you from that Government is this: We hope to continue to interest ourselves in the welfare of the teachers because we look upon them really as the great nation-builders. There never was a time when that name was more appropriate as applied to you than at the present moment. The teachers are really the nation builders of Canada and the Empire. I congratulate you on the vigor of your Association. It seems to me it grows stronger year by year, as it ought to do. You are performing a great work in the interest of education. I hope you will continue the task and that you will get inspiration from the meeting this week, which will enable you to return home with renewed vigor and fresh resolves to carry on the labours that are of such vital consequence to the whole country.

THE WAR, THE SCHOOL AND THE FARM.

BY W. J. SUMMERBY.

1. THE WAR AND THE SCHOOL.

One of the newspapers in giving a notice of the O. E. A. programme stated that this might be called apparently a war session, but the warlike appearance of the programme was merely a school-master's device, the common device of seizing upon a subject of current interest and making use of it to draw attention to matters connected with his school work.

The absorbing subject of the war seems to have gathered up all subjects of naturally weaker interest, and to have drawn them into its net. In fact the device referred to is one used by the journalist himself in his ordinary routine. When we make a closer examination of our bill of fare we find it is really "Business as usual." The war itself is of course—and rightly so—the main business of the Empire at the present moment, and to ignore it would be an impossibility.

The March number of the educational journal, "The School," edited by members of the Faculty of Education of the University of Toronto, is a "Special War Number." When I first saw it I felt that a great part of my paper was really a work of superogation, for the editors have treated the subject of the war with such a wealth of detail and illustration that leaves nothing to be desired from the side from which it is viewed. The editors by their admirable articles in this "Special War Number" have placed the teachers of the Province—of Canada I should say—under an obligation. It is a pleasure to see that we are promised a continuation of the subject in the April number.

Of course, it is in the sphere of Geography and History that the subject of the war falls naturally, and it is in connection with these two subjects that it will be most largely treated. This war is a subject that comes to the home and the hearth of every Briton, and the wars of the past will very naturally be specially dwelt upon in the teaching. The ground now being fought over has been the battle ground of European armies from time immemorial. Familiar names will occur at every stage, and the teacher will have no trouble in keeping the attention of his class when the name

happens to be one which the boy reads in the newspaper or mayhap hears spoken of by his playmates, as that of the place from which some acquaintance or relative writes.

But besides these two subjects of History and Geography which are more closely related to the subject of the War, other subjects such as Literature and Composition will be brought in; in the study, for instance, of patriotic poems; with criticisms of them; Biography in the lives of national heroes; Hygiene, involving first aid, etc., and Physical Culture. These subjects that in ordinary times are troublesome and liable to be neglected, will take on an added interest when shown to be connected with the very life blood of the nation.

Most important of all will be the moral lessons which will naturally and inevitably flow from discussions by teachers and pupils of the daily events of the war; of its causes; its heroic situations; such as, for instance, the sublime sacrifice of the people of Belgium on the altar of freedom.

Authorities agree that the aim of Education should be the formation of fine character, and that moral instruction is best given by teaching the various virtues not as abstractions, but by concrete examples and by interesting stories. Hearing constantly about noble actions, the pupils learn to appreciate noble conduct. The spirit behind the instruction is the spirit of service, of consecration to the service of one's country. Such teaching will "enlarge and enrich the pupil's spiritual experience, and stimulate healthy reaction upon it."

2. THE WAR AND THE FARM.

The war has been the cause of the Patriotism and Production movement that has been used to such good effect in increasing the interest in everything connected with farming. This movement has no doubt had a beneficial influence upon the work of the Schools' Division of the Experimental Union of the Ontario Agricultural College, which is doing such fine work under the Director of the Division.

There is no doubt that in practice we pay too little attention to physical culture in our education. Vigorous muscular exercise in the open air is necessary for the development of the vital organs upon which health depends. A competent authority tells us that "a healthy physical growth and development are, during child-

hood, more important than any amount of learning." We are probably on the retrograde in this respect.

In the early days of Ontario the greater part of the children were living in the country. They all had "chores" to do; all that were able had to assist in the labours of the farm. They had an opportunity to receive physical culture on nature's plan by working practically at farm operations. Their muscles were developed by practical work in nature study. A supply of muscular energy was laid up for future calls upon the child's system.

There is no doubt, I think, that if the children in rural schools spent half their time in physical exercise, in organized play, manual training, gardening and farm work and nature study, and the other half in ordinary school studies, they would receive a better education for country life than they do at present. A child with such a training would, I believe, be as well developed intellectually as he is with the present system.

A teacher at a training school said: "Give me country girls for my classes. They have red blood and will not balk." Why is the town girl not the equal of the country girl? You notice two reasons are given, one physical, the other moral. The teacher referred to found that the country girl would endure more than the town girl, that she was stronger.

And why should she not balk? Her strength was one reason, but mainly it was because she had a purpose in life. She had a reason for attending the training school. The other girl probably had nothing in view: had not to think of earning a living; was enervated from lack of sufficient physical exercise. The country girl's parents, it may be, had made sacrifices to send their daughter to school and she was determined to repay them by doing the best work she could.

WOMEN AS EMPIRE BUILDERS.

BY HON. SIR GEO. E. FOSTER, MINISTER OF TRADE AND COMMERCE.

Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen,—I do not know but that the politic thing for me to do is to introduce myself to you as one of the teaching guild; that makes us all brothers and sisters.

My first school was taught in the year—dare I say it—1863. Now, no mathematical calculations, please. The last class that I taught in the University of New Brunswick was in 1878. You can apply mathematics to that, if you like. And since that time I have been trying to teach the people of Canada, here and there, to be good citizens and incidentally to be good Conservatives. I understand and sympathise with the old life of the teachers of twenty or thirty years ago, but the teachers of this age and generation are so far ahead, in some respects, of those of the older time, and the methods have so changed and the studies have so multiplied that probably I would find myself somewhat of a stranger in the class-room of to-day. But I subscribe to the sentiment of the extract read by the President, and venture the opinion that the successful teacher of my time and the successful teacher of any time, will be the teacher who is best able to represent in the concrete the abstract truths of mind, of spirit, of character and conduct.

Now, I am the invited guest as a speaker, not of this Teachers' Association, but of the society indicated by that formidable collection of alphabetical names, the Janet Carnochan Chapter, Imperial Order, Daughters of the Empire. And I was foolish enough not to stipulate with the Daughters of the Empire that I should choose my own subject—and behold they did choose for me a cracker-jack of a subject. If it had been some matter of finance or commerce, or even patriotism and protection, or that altogether new subject, the war—why, I should have got along easily and without very much trouble; but “Women as Empire Builders,” that is a problem, and I do not know just how I can attack it with any kind of success.

I suppose it is a proper thing, when using the word “builders” in that connection, to allow some elasticity in its meaning. We will all agree that the builder of a Nation or an Empire has different material to work with than that used generally by builders.

And yet I think it is quite true that no matter what material a builder uses he must always study his material, and accommodate himself to his material. The material says:—"I am wood. You can use me, but you can only use me to advantage in a certain way. Study that way." Or it says:—"I am iron, but you can only use me in a certain way, and it will be to your advantage to study me, and to find out the best way to co-operate with me." And so with everything else. And when we come to Builders of Empire, they deal with material which is different from wood and iron or stone, or anything inanimate. We do not build up men and women, citizens, communities or nations and empires on the same plan followed in constructive work in which inanimate material is the substance used.

That much to make my subject a little easier.

My next task is to try and define the word Nation or Empire. You see I am taking my tasks on the line of least resistance. I will have by and by to define woman—and I want to try how successfully I get along with the Empire first before I make that effort.

But it is a good thing for us once in a while to try and expand the Empire or the Nation from the abstract into the concrete, and, as it were, to visualize it and get an idea, a somewhat adequate idea of what complex factors are included in the term and in the conception of Nation or of Empire. It is not a mere name. It is not an abstraction simply. I like to think of it as a real, live entity. And it does not require a very great deal of imagination to make it possible for one to so think of it.

There is the flag which symbolizes the Empire, which floats in the ambient air; a thing of silk, but which conveys to the heart and mind, all that one learns of the history of the Empire from the earliest time to the present; embodies in it all the achievements of Empire; the principles for which it stands and the ideals which it pursues. There is then the King or Emperor of our nation, who is its personal symbol. There is next the Government of a Nation or an Empire, which is limited, and derives authority from the Constitution and the laws enacted under the different systems and forms by which they reach the statute book and become effective. There are also the great activities in a Nation or an Empire: activities material, activities intellectual, activities moral and spiritual. And in connection with these are the millions of human units which vivify and vitalize all those activities, which

embody their ideals and their purposes, and work them out. There is in addition to that the many large operations and functions of a nation which carry beyond what an individual or a corporation of individuals can possibly do. The great lines of communications before which the individual quails in utter impotence, but which the Nation carries out to perfection: the postal system, the great telegraph system, great cable systems, the great wireless systems, all the methods and means by which communications are carried on throughout the Empire or throughout the Nation;—this, too, is one of the attributes and work of nationality or of Empire. Then there is the system of protection and defence of all the units that go to make up the Nation,—protection inside the country itself so that liberty and happiness may be guaranteed to the individual, and defence against outside menace or enemies so that the Empire or Nation, as a whole, may be free to pursue its own life.

Then there are associations which gather about a nation which do not inhere solely to the individual—associations, traditions, history, literature, poetry, song, art, that enrich, beautify and vivify the Nation and the Empire. In this heritage each unit or individual has his share. They are his inheritance. They come down from the past in certain perfection, they inure to the benefit of the generation as it passes and are transmitted on again enlarged and enriched to the future. The trust that we have had in them having been performed devolves upon the generation that succeeds. It is wonderful how the individual and the nation act and react on each other. The Nation may be said to be a composite of all the individuals which form its citizenship. Its national characteristics are different from the characteristics of any individual, but they are all derived from characteristics of the individuals that make up a nation.

Each individual has his line of action, his work in life. So there is also a national line of action and national work that only the Nation can perform. Stimulus and ideal come back from the Nation, and impel and attract the individual. Strength and direction and purpose emanate from the individual and find themselves extended and absorbed into the Nation and grade up in some form or other, into national spirit, national purpose and national life.

Now, I leave with you these few crude thoughts, without further elaboration, because you are teachers, and as an outline lesson, if it be a lesson at all. You understand what that is, and you are quite able to fill in the details for yourselves. Carry them further,

and you will come to the conclusion in the end that a nation is a great living, vital entity. It has body and mind and soul. There is a national body as well as an individual body; a national mind as well as an individual mind; a national soul as well as an individual soul. A splendid body which fills the geographical spaces of the Nation or Empire, waking, sleeping, marching, working, in wondrous might and effectiveness. There is a national mind, stronger, wider than the individual mind, not narrowed by its limitations—a mind which is strong and broad, and deals with great and large things, thinking its own thoughts, dreaming its own dreams and seeing its own visions. And there is a national soul, away from which the pettiness that clogs the individual soul has vanished, which lives in larger spaces and attains higher elevations and has greater vision. And so we arrive at the conception of a Nation or an Empire as an entity, living, vivified, which has a purpose of its own, a mind of its own, a soul of its own, which, though generations of the individuals that constitute it succeed each other in long procession, yet never itself passes away, or need never pass away, but continues on from plane to higher plane, and may be immortal.

Now, if you wish to pass from the national into the imperial, from the Nation to the Empire, all you have to do is to enlarge the canvas and to paint in the larger constituents. This Canadian Nation is made up of French and Britons, and smaller parts of other nationalities. But this Nation of ours is not British and is not French; it is a Canadian Nation, which has in it elements from all the constituent races which compose the units of the Nation. And it has, therefore, a composite quality, differing from the quality of any individual, peculiar to itself and to itself alone.

So, for the Empire, all you have to do is to enlarge the canvas, and paint in the other national constituents, for the Empire is made up of many nationalities. And just here, let me say, there is no Empire that ever has been, and none now in the wide world, which is like our Empire. Our Empire is made up of so many nationalities, so widely distributed, so diverse in origin, so different in culture, in cast of mind, in temper and quality of soul, that it stands unique in the history of the world. And these nationalities act and react on one another, and by that wonderful chemistry—which no man can explain, the attributes and qualities of every part of that Empire to a certain extent permeate and influence every other part. Great Britain, itself, is different be-

cause India is a part of the Empire and affects it. Canada is different from what it otherwise would be, because South Africa and New Zealand and Australia are with it parts of the Empire. And the current that flows from one to the other, the subtle influence which spread and permeates, has its effect from every part of the Empire on every other part of the Empire. And the Empire itself is an entity, vivified, has a body of its own, a mind of its own and a soul of its own. So much then for the Empire. I have had my try at that, and now for the next.

And that next task is to define woman, and what a task. Sweet, attractive, elusive, contradictory—if there are any other adjectives of mysterious meaning in the vocabulary just add them all in the vain endeavour to describe what woman is. But I am not going to go very closely into definition. I am going to say what I believe, and that is, that the quality of woman is differentiated in very important particulars from that of man. Woman has the five senses, as has man. They see and hear and speak in the same way. There are most important particulars in which woman and man as human beings are not greatly differentiated. But there are other respects in which there was a difference from the first, there is a difference to-day, and I hope there will always be a difference,—in quality of mind and soul, and temperament.

I wonder if I would be very audacious if I were to try and give you three or four of what I think are the distinguishing characteristics of woman or of woman power. First, that though women taken as units differ from each other, as probably some of you people know, yet, taken in the main woman has a keener and deeper spiritual sense and nature than man has. You can take that and think over it for a little while, and you can agree with me or not, just as you please. The next is, that woman has a quicker, more sensitive conscience than man. In the third place, that woman has a gentler, sweeter quality of humanness—if there is such a word—than man has. And fourthly, woman has a greater capacity of deep and self-sacrificing love than man possesses. And the last that I shall venture to bring forward as a distinguishing characteristic is that woman has an inborn, inextinguishable instinct for home—and that I consider to be one of the most distinctive. Think these over and see whether or not you cannot come to the conclusion that these are the great distinguishing characteristics of woman power that typify her, that dominate and beautify and strengthen the womanhood of this and of all ages.

Now, if these qualities that I have attributed to womanhood—be true—it is evident that instilled in the national and imperial life of the world they are as salt and savor and beget a spirit without which the civilization of Nation or Empire would be sadly lacking. Here is where I make my first deduction, that woman power is one of the subtlest and most powerful instrumentalities in making nationality and building Empire, and that it ought to be encouraged and utilized to the very fullest.

To go on rapidly, what is the sphere in which woman power can do its best work towards the upbuilding of the Nation or the Empire? It occurs to everyone at once, the chosen place is in the home. The home is the cradle of the nation. There the child which is to become the future citizen is born. There he is nurtured. There tendencies are imparted and habits strengthened which will persist through all the years of his life. The child is born to the home with inherited physique, temperament and natural endowments, but during the extended years of nurture after birth, the processes of body, mind and soul respond to home influences, undergo expansion, are opened up, warmed, as it were, by the sunlight of tender care and loving suggestion until they burst into youthful bloom, and the rich promise of coming fruitage. That is the sacred and beautiful and infinitely precious mission of the model home. If the atmosphere is what it should be, no other atmosphere is so well adapted to the expansion and growth of the natural endowments of the child. There evil tendencies are repressed, good tendencies are imparted, conduct is taught, and ideals are impressed upon the child's mind. Imitation at first, the attractive drawings of story and song, the slow but effective distillation of affection and example, and then the positive teaching of conduct,—all these in multiplied frequency constitute the processes that take place in the home.

In the home, the mother, the woman, is the predominating factor and—sooth to say—is becoming more predominant as the world grows more complex and exacting. For civilization has its disadvantages as well as its advantages.

I remember once visiting a friend of mine in the city of Chicago, a man of a very large business, a most excellent type of man. He lived in one of the Great Parks, and I spent some little time at his home. His business was situated about six miles away from his home. To get to his business and to control it he left his home at five o'clock each morning before the children were awake. He

got back to his home at nine or ten o'clock at night, after the children were asleep. The mother, in that case, had the almost total care of the children, the father was the casual visitor. That is an extreme case, but it illustrates a growing condition of civilization in our towns and cities more particularly. The man is more and more taken out from the home, his business absorbs him, and more and more the work of bringing up the child and training it in the initial stages of citizenship is becoming the work of the woman of the home.

Now, does it not strike you that the conduct of this immense nursery of citizenship, nationality, and Empire, is about the most important business in the wide world to-day? And yet, would I be going too far if I were to say that the business of home-making and keeping is entered into with the least thought and the least preparation of any other business of importance in the wide world. Your carpenter who builds your home is not engaged or paid until he has passed his apprenticeship, and made himself an approved workman. The decorator who decorates your home must spend many years in learning how to do it. And so with all the trades and professions of life.

But alas! and alack! In so many cases, the business of home-making is not well prepared for, or is not prepared for at all, and is entered upon with little thought or care for fitness. Wonderful indeed, that under this lack of preparation the homes of this country are the good homes they are on the wide average. And wonderful that through them and out from them there has passed so fine an average citizenship which has proved its quality and work from the earliest times of our history, and is not found lacking in this supreme hour of trial. But that is no reason that there should not be more thought, more care, more preparation for the work and business of home-making and home maintaining.

The next field in which woman's power for Nation and Empire building is particularly appropriate and particularly important, is in the school. Now a thought strikes me, and it is this. No man who dislocates himself from other men or pursues a calling which he dislocates from other callings stands where he should or where he can do his best work. A man must co-relate his life to the lives of those about him. He must co-relate his work to the work about him. And so the home with all its pleasure, its joy, its peace, its security, and all the important functions which it performs, will not fulfill its mission as it should unless it co-relates

itself with the Nation, of which the home is a unit and for which it breeds and prepares its citizens. And the school is to be doubly co-related, first to the home, of which it is a sort of continuation class, and secondly, to the Nation for whose citizens it is the training ground. And so, teachers, you are to be more than teachers if you do your work at the best. You take what the home has prepared, through father, mother and all home influences. The home is unable to provide the care and training beyond a certain point, many are absolutely impotent to carry it on to any extent. The school comes in and takes the place of the home, and the teacher, to do his best work, must assume measurably the place of the mother and father while the child is in the school and under tuition. That idea must be kept clear,—that we teachers are not simply to teach the children, but we are to father them and mother them, with all that tender solicitude and attention to temperament, that the mother and the father should show. That helps us to receive the child into the school, study it, get its sympathy, as well as take charge of its mental processes, and so do our best work as teachers in the school.

Now woman's place in the school is predominant, and is growing more and more so. In my time, the school teacher was as often a man as a woman. They were about equally divided; perhaps with a preponderance of the male sex, in the Province of New Brunswick when I was a teacher there. But at this time I doubt if I would be beyond the mark, if I were to say that the teaching of the Dominion of Canada is probably up to 75 or 80 per cent. in charge of women rather than men. So that under the present system and demands of civilization, our schools are passing more and more into the hands of the women of the country. Therefore the power and influence of woman is predominant in the schools of the country, that second training place of the citizen, in which he is further furnished and fashioned in conduct and ideal and aspiration, for the part he has to play as a citizen of the Nation and Empire. What a noble calling, but how seriously and responsible as well. No man, no woman who understands just what it is, or nearly what it is, can ever approach this work in any other than a serious and careful state of mind. What is confided to his care? That wonderful organization, the human body, in all its freshness and vigour, that still more wonderful microcosm of mind where thought dwells, the soul of passion and feeling that will never die, boys and girls triply endowed that are to be the

future pride, power and strength of the Nation in which we live. Am I a workman properly certified to that work? This question causes us to think and think deeply, and puts us upon our mettle as teachers to do the work committed to us, first, as relates to the home, and second, as relates to the Nation.

There is another sphere in which woman power tends mightily towards the upbuilding of the Nation or Empire, and that is in society. Man is a social creature. Communication and intercourse are absolutely necessary, and are always sought, and will be of grades and kinds innumerable and diverse. Some will be ennobling altogether, some will be altogether deteriorating, and some an happy or unhappy mixture of the two, whichever way you may view it. But in all social work, and intercourse, and in all social gatherings in what we call society,—what we chiefly mean when we use the word “society,”—there, again, woman is the predominant factor. And what a mechanism society is after all! What a complete clearing house it is of the ideas and sentiments and feelings and ambitions and aspirations of the people who compose it! We talk with each other. An idea flashes into our mind, an impulse into our heart. We are passing out mental and spiritual currency as we meet each other in society, and converse and look into each other’s faces; we are clearing from one to the other our experience, our thought, and our sentiment. We are making common property the ideas that originate in each unit, and so society becomes a clearing house in every sense of the word. Impulses are born, attachments are formed, friendships are made, ideas are launched, ideals are gathered and caught in this intercourse of man and woman in the social area. And in all these the woman power, the woman factor, is the predominating element. If it is pure and strong and good the world, the Nation, the Empire is made better in its citizenship, in mind and soul and thought action. If it is the opposite a deteriorating effect takes place. So that you who go into society and attend committees and talk and chat with your neighbours and attend little club meetings and social gatherings of different kinds, you are enjoying yourself in society. But along with that as you pass and repass and gather from your neighbour and give to your neighbour, it is well if you would always keep the idea that this is a means to an end, a great and unselfish end. It is a means to elevate citizenship, to broaden it, to strengthen it, and to make our country better, because of this social intercourse. Read the history of the decadent, the passing and passed nations

of the world, and what is the lesson you learn? That as social morals deteriorate national greatness begins to decline, that woman is the guardian and touchstone of social morality, and that so long as she holds the torch of purity aloft, society fulfils its fine and lofty purpose, and ensures a tense and strong moral fibre in the nation by virtue of which it endures and advances.

Leaving that I come to the last point, and no doubt you are all glad it is the last. (Cries: "No, no.") And I approach this with a great deal of hesitation. Perhaps the newspaper reporters better not take it down at all. Let us keep it a secret amongst ourselves.

Woman may help to upbuild the Nation and the Empire in the sphere of public life. It is all out now! So far, I have had you good ladies with me, everyone without exception. A speaker can tell when his audience is with him. Up to this you have all been on my side; you have said to every point I have made, "Yes, that is about right; we agree with the speaker in that." Now we come to a place where some of us must part. Partings are always so sad! All of you say:—"Thus far as to the home, the school, society, you are right. We are with you." But when I say:—"How would it do to carry it a little further?" a number of you—I hope not a majority—may say, "We stop there. Thus far we can go but no further." I am not a propagandist to-night, and it will not break my heart if I do not carry all the ladies with me on this point. In fact, I have not yet told you what I think about it myself. But let us think around it and look into it for a bit.

Public life and public action, what does it mean? You all remember the Old Testament incident of the Israelites. Now, I shall have to be very careful for fear I make a mis-step in my biblical allusion, but anyway the gist of the incident is this:—

At a certain time the Israelites were building something—a city or wall, and they built it under conditions that necessitated bearing trowel in one hand and a sword in the other. Now that gives us a lesson. What in the wide world is the use of building a thing if you let some fellow come up the next moment and destroy it? Is it not just as much the duty of a man to protect what he builds, if it is good, as it is to build it? Construction and protection go together, and are inherent in the motive of all work. A man goes out to cultivate cabbages. He tills the soil and bears plant food so as to make his cabbages grow. But while he has food in one

hand for the cabbages he has poison in the other for the slug. And he will not get far, however much he may till his soil and feed his cabbages, unless he destroys the slugs that otherwise would destroy them. The orchardist looks tenderly after his fruit trees, sees that the soil conditions are right, moisture conditions are right, pruning right, everything right that is necessary to induce fruit bearing. Along comes the scale. He is surely a pretty blind kind of an orchardist if he does not turn in and destroy the scale if it is within his power to do so. These illustrations teach us that if anything is worth building it is worth protecting after it is built, and that the duty of man is not quite ended when he essays a structure and says, How strong and safe and beautiful that is, if he then thinks his whole duty is ended and allows the depredator and destroyer to deface and demolish that into which he has put his best effort. Now, public life is not either a mysterious or an awful thing. It is not all "boots and binoculars" by any means! There are other things besides these. Public life is one of God's given methods for preserving what is constructed, so far as it is good, and for adding to it and expanding and making it more strong and more useful and more beautiful. It is equally a method by which the good is conserved and evil diminished. As I said, they must be co-related—construction and preservation.

Is there anything that the Dominion of Canada to-day ought to look to with greater solicitude and assiduity in the material sense than this one thing? Stop wasting in Canada! Canada, if she would stop her material waste for ten years, would be the richest country in the wide-world. The health of the body is a fine thing, and so men and women say:—"Let us have sanitary conditions." Moral health is an infinitely greater thing. Let men and women say equally, We must have moral health conditions. How, after you have trained up the boy and girl in your home, how do you ensure that so far as effort can go his bodily health shall not be contaminated or destroyed? Why, by securing sanitary conditions in your village, your town, or your city. The city fathers are to look after it, but if the city fathers do not look after it, or do not look after it well, why should not the city mothers take a hand, too? Moral health is infinitely higher and more important than bodily health. If the city fathers do not look after it that the sanitary conditions in morals is as good as it can be made, why not the city

mothers take a hand in it? I put the question to you! You cannot escape it! If you are consistent, if your heart is in it, you have got to do it or bear the responsibility. How to do it, it is a thing of good sense to determine. I would not advise you all to put hammers under your cloaks and walk up and down Yonge Street and smash the plate glass windows. That is going a long way! Or to pour corrosives in the post office boxes to destroy the people's letters. That is one way. But there is a sane way of gradual approach, and insistence, a womanly way, in which every woman can take her part to keep good that which she has helped to make good; to keep safe that which she has helped to create. And so, I leave it to you! Think it over and act on your own judgment, but be sure that you do not evade the obligation which careful thought and prayerful purpose places upon you.

I cannot close this address without one word regarding women as maintainers of the Empire by defence and protection. History has peeping out from its recesses, dim and misty in many cases, illustrious examples of illustrious womanhood in every walk of life, in every line of endeavour. This Twentieth Century is not behind any century that has proceeded it in the long line of centuries in that respect. When defence of the Empire is called for, whom does it strike with the greatest force? In whose heart does the iron pierce most deeply? It is the mother who gives her son, and lays him as a willing sacrifice in tears and prayer on the altar of his country, if need be. Her contribution! and what a contribution it is for the preservation and conservation of the homes, and liberties and rights of the country which she loves. Women today in Canada, and in Britain, in Belgium and Russia, in all these countries which are caught in the grip of war, women today are the ones who suffer most in the first sacrifice, and most in the disastrous consequences which follow upon the war. And the women of Canada by their generous personal self-sacrifice, their deep sympathy and care for the sufferers from war, by their work in Red Cross and patriotic movements, are passing through a discipline of self-denial which is making better women and better men of us all.

We are learning a lesson that could be taught by nothing else than a war, the lesson of the futility and triviality of ten thousand

things that heretofore we thought to be important, and that have bulked large in our eyes, but which to-day are as nothing in the face of the eternal verities of personal freedom, of national existence and the world's liberties.

Woman can upbuild the Empire. She must also defend it! For who has greater stake in the Empire, in the Nation, and in its life, than woman? And she defends it by giving her best and dearest, in silence and in comparative inaction. For while war summons men to the ranks, gives to all the excitement and activity of conflict, and to many the merciful oblivion of all after consequences, woman is left in comparative inactivity, torn between fear and hope, keeping lonely vigil in broken homes, by firesides from whose circles her loved ones have been swept by the wild whirlwind of war. And so it is that woman in the defence of liberty and freedom of country suffers most, and suffers most bravely.

Many of our friends have already crossed the sea, many more are on the way. Mothers have sons and husbands, and sisters have brothers and sweethearts at the far off Front—we all watch their fortunes and follow them with our prayers. There will be ample need of patience, of fortitude and courage for the long months ahead. But sometime, for many patient and suffering ones the menace will be lifted, the danger will be passed, liberty and freedom in our Empire will be vindicated and maintained, and the long expected ones will come back bearing honourable wounds and the tokens of victory. We shall welcome them with flying banners and honour them as our living heroes. For many other waiting and suffering ones there will remain only the sad proud memories of the dead heroes who lie in lonely graves, on the far off European plains, whose splendid courage and willing sacrifice made victory possible and freedom safe.

Honour for the living, veneration for the dead, who fought for Freedom and Empire on the ensanguined fields of this greatest of all world wars, and honour and deathless veneration for the mothers, wives and sisters of these heroic men who gave them up for so sacred a cause.

Once again in the wonderful story of human progress it has been given to men and women of a present generation to pay its debt to the past by vindicating anew the dear bought liberties.

bequeathed to it, and in turn transmitting them to the future, hallowed by their own sacrifices and sufferings. Once again the world is privileged to realize that self-denial and renunciation, even to death are the stepping stones to all human and national progress, and to learn afresh the age old truth taught by the Master, "Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends."

EDUCATION FOR OCCUPATIONS.

BY DR. JAS. W. ROBERTSON, OTTAWA.

Dr. Robertson: Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—I appreciate the opportunity of attending this gathering of teachers and speaking to them upon a theme which is very closely related to their own activities—Education for Occupations. I take it from my knowledge of previous conventions, and the little I have seen of this one, that most of you came to enjoy yourselves and incidentally to qualify yourselves better for your occupations.

THE NATURE OF EDUCATION.

It would be presumptuous on my part to attempt to define education to a body of teachers. In fact I have never read a definition that appealed to me as being complete, as defining or describing the thing itself which I know by experience to be education. All I can do is to tell of a few of the processes of which I have knowledge by experience. All education, whatever else it may mean, is a series of experiences leading to certain changes in the individual.

May I begin by asking you to think of the kind of change and changes that you like to see take place in the pupils, in the young men and women? Where do you begin to observe the change? For a moment think of the uneducated. Think back till you find a young baby, the only human being quite uneducated. What are the marks, what are the qualities that indicate the lack of education? Ignorance, helplessness, selfishness, want of a sense of proportion and no sense of responsibility. These I take to be the "qualities" of the uneducated workman and the uneducated workwoman and the uneducated person in every capacity in life—ignorance, helplessness, selfishness, no sense of proportion and no sense of responsibility. I take it that all educational effort should be directed to bring about the proper change as between ignorance and not merely knowledge but intelligence: between helplessness and ability to do things worth while in the best way at the right time: to transform and develop utter selfishness into public service: and to bring about a quick conscience instead of no sense of proportion or responsibility. I do not find my conscience to be a

supernatural divine revelation; I do not find that it came down through the ages except as the child of education. It throbs in my blood and finds expression in my accent as a very human acquisition. I find my conscience to be a product of the accepted standards of life and the developed sense of responsibility. The school has much to do with fixing the standards and making the sense of responsibility quick, active and determinative as to whether the man's conduct shall be according to his own standards or not. The school should remedy the lack of a sense of proportion. The school should bring out the unconscious manifestation of good manners which are the outward and visible sign of the inward change. The school should bring about the acceptance of some dominating purpose and some persistent ideals to guide the conduct.

These changes (or progress) cannot be determined by a formal or written examination. Your own Chief in Ontario thinks that the uniform examination has been a curse upon educational progress in this Province. Will I detain you a moment to recount a few things and see how much you can discover of the possession, or permanence or permeating power, in the pupil, of any one of them by your ordinary examination? Intelligence—a little. Intelligence about what? About the job that is to occupy the man or woman more than half their waking hours after they leave school: how much? Ability to do things in the right way, at the right time and for the noblest purpose: how much? Manners, not merely manner of speech but the usual expression of the soul of courtesy: how much? Kind of conscience (with all the elaborate provisions for watching against copying): how much? Of a dominating purpose in life or a revelation of the ideals held by the boy and girl: how much?

The processes of change, from the uneducated state to the educated state, are all series of experiences. And we have been somehow bewildered by being taught that they inhere in courses of study and kinds of school and systems of organization. These are means to be used, but the ultimate must be the series of experiences that the child itself only can have or be moved by. I put it down, first, that in any system of education for occupations it is highly important that the institutions and courses of study and equipment of schools and classes and teachers should be planned and used to bring about experiences by the pupils sure to produce

the changes already indicated as being of the very essence of education.

THE 3 RS ARE NOT ENOUGH.

For a long time the public school system of most lands did not concern itself with those experiences or those ends. It carried on a very arduous campaign against illiteracy and was lauded to the skies when it had accomplished that trivial, but by the processes used, most tedious task. Why all this overestimating of the success of education in producing ability to read and ability to write? Of course, everybody should have the ability. Why should they not have it? But why make all the ado of a great national movement and claim to have accomplished the education of the people, when the avowedly main purpose was to overtake the "three little Rs" of reading and writing and reckoning.

In Winnipeg, in April of last year, I saw children of six and seven reading easily their sixth book; and those children could not read a word when they went to school in the September previous. That was in the Model School attached to the Normal School at Winnipeg. The children opened their sixth book the day I was there. They had never seen it before. It was the sixth reading book for them in that class. They opened the book and read quite clearly and intelligibly from its pages. The lessons had words of one, two, three and more syllables. These children of six and seven had acquired the art of reading in less than seven months. I saw the same in many schools in England. They are doubtless doing it here. My point is, why all this palaver of praise of a system of education for the abolition of illiteracy when Winnipeg does it in seven months. All those children could read in less than seven months.

Then I have known of and seen children learning to write in three weeks, and to write a fine round hand in less than three months. That is your second art. My friend Bengough has specimens of good writing brought from Rome, done in his presence by children of six and seven who could not write a single letter a few months before. That is the art of writing by the Montessori method.

In England there is a rural school that stands first for the drawing of its pupils; a country school with four women as teachers, only one of whom could draw a little. They let the children make

pictures of things from the things, and then direct the children to criticize the drawings. The result is that each child hurries to make the picture more like the thing. We have been trying to get the outward expression, by a course of study and by instruction, without due regard to the significance of the experiences of the pupil in impressions and expressions. These experiences of observing, thinking, planning, making, and recording develop power and bring out educational results.

I have taken some time to say these things. I think they are fundamentally important to every teacher who wants to make real progress in bringing about the fine fruits of education in her or his locality. Do not waste so much time on the arts of reading, writing and drawing, but use the best methods and the pupils will acquire those arts just as naturally as the art of speaking. Progress comes from experience and effort. A good school should now have lots of time for other things besides the so-called three Rs and drawing.

OCCUPATIONS AND LIFE.

If the school has time for other things what other things shall it undertake? Shall it choose the things to be done by the pupils that have most to do with the occupations of the people? Do not forget that every race has been bred up into intelligence and power by the occupations its people followed. Let that soak in, if you will. Think of who you are and what you can do and what you dream and hope you shall yet become; and has not the occupation you have followed, and the way you followed it, and the spirit that lay behind the effort,—have not these been an influence not less potent than the uplift and nurture of sermons or even fine poetry? Growth comes through experiences in being and in doing—through the activities of body, mind and soul.

Occupations have always played a great part in the drama of life. If all the world is a stage, then the occupation of the player determines much of the quality of the actor in the great drama. It has always been so for plain people as well as for great persons. Take the plain man who follows a skilled job and gets refinement of touch and control of movement and readiness of decision through his task. He becomes safer in his judgments on intellectual and moral questions, within his range, because of his task being well done in that way. Everyone knows that. The statesmen, when they want a sane judgment on a great moral question, say: Leave it to the country people who are in close contact with nature and

whose occupations are allied to its inexorable laws. I will not detain you on that. I could give you many examples. I will give you a few. I heard a man preach lately on the waste of 40 years of Moses' life. For some misdeed Moses was sent off and punished by having to spend forty years in the open country! I do not read the story that way. Here is a man educated by the best schools of the nation, and by the forms of learning and culture of the time. His state is that of a prince's son in Egypt, thoroughly schooled, doubtless a fine scholar. And if we read in the beautiful eastern imagery the true intent of the whole story, the Almighty needed some human hand that could engrave the ten Commandments—to become the basis and core of all sound legislation for all time. Some hand trained for the job. Why not choose the stylus of the princely scholar? It needed further education for the occupation; and Moses was sent for forty years to follow the plain job of farmer until he had the patience and the knowledge and the skill to be the instrumentality—the Almighty's hand—for the writing of that great document.

Another instance. You remember David and "The Lord is my Shepherd." For long years he kept sheep and looked after the lambs. He had the experiences of knowing and feeling, and now his song runs through all ages and all lands. There is Burns—"The best laid plans of mice and men gang aft agley." The ploughman became the singer and the voice of the soul of a nation. These men were bred up to know truth, to know realities by following their jobs as contributing workers. Afterwards they did greater things that contributed to the weal of the race. I could go on and multiply instances of the great part occupation plays in the individual life. You know Christ followed a trade for eighteen years. It has been said He did that to dignify labour. Piffle! Labour needs not to be dignified by anybody, not even by the Son of God. "My Father worketh hitherto and I work," were His words—not to dignify labour but to express Himself in service and acquire feelings and power for further expression.

FARMING HOME-MAKING TEACHING AND TRADES.

Canada is happy in the occupations of most of her people; happy in the opportunity for following satisfying occupations but not always happy in the conditions under which those occupations are followed. She has in the large three great mothering occupations

that nurture and sustain all the rest. You have first the occupation of farming. I shall say a few words later of what may be the effect of the school and the power of the school on agriculture in this land of ours. Farming is not moving soil. Farming is collecting sun power. Jove had no such grip. It is the collecting of sun power by having it rolled up in plants and animals, in materials for clothing, and in food products and flowers for use. That is farming. By it man grasps the universal elusive sun power. Seager Wheeler, at Rosthern out in the West, got some wheat born on the Experimental Farm at Ottawa—one parent a long time ago from Dantzig and the other from Calcutta. Unto us a new child was born in wheatdom. Seager Wheeler, the farmer, used it and through it, out on the plains, gathered sun power at the rate of seventy bushels of wheat to the acre. The wheat captured a thousand dollar first prize in New York, as the best wheat in the world. A thousand dollars in gold, and the recognition, are not to be sneezed at. But that was nothing in comparison with the farmer's power to grasp the elusive sun power and have it made available for human service. Farming is a fine job; a great occupation. I will have occasion to speak of it by and by. Just a word now. Don't you city people or teachers keep up the fiction that farming is moving soil; it is collecting sun power. That is the ultimate of its processes. The object is the service of mankind.

Making homes is another mothering occupation—making and keeping homes. Not building houses and getting things to put in them; but making homes as places for the nurture and culture of the souls of the nation. That is a job worth while; and it requires fine education. The influence of fine homes on the national life is like that of the moon on the sea. Waves may rise a little in a crest above the level but the moon lifts the mass. When the homes are fine and finely kept, the tide of national life flows full.

Teaching and training the young is another great mothering occupation. It calls not only for the sedentary qualities of scholarship; it calls for the conquering qualities of constructive activity. Its task is to overcome ignorance and inability and vice and disease and poverty and ill-will. That is the job of the teacher. Would it be any worse to sell the Lord, if he were here, for forty pieces of silver than to hire myself to teach school for \$50 a month solely for the sake of the salary. I would rather betray one man than betray thirty children. Salary is not everything. It is necessary of course; but the greatness of the job is its attraction and satis-

faction—this developing of power, this recreating of the people, this breathing into the nostrils the breath of your own intellectual and spiritual life and seeing the pupils become living souls. This is truly an occupation from which a good workman has fruits of which no workman need be ashamed.

Then there are other occupations, occupations in trades and industries. A man who makes good things for service adds to the wealth of the world and to the capacity of human life. But a man who makes poor things to sell had better have died young before he debased the quality of human endeavour. Poor work on poor things for large profits debases the very currency of life itself as contained in power for service and worthy accomplishment. The man who debases the currency of individual life and national life is no product of the school. He needs education.

There are many industries in which men follow tasks with intelligence and honesty and courage and power. There are about 50 main occupations in this Province. Could the schools do anything definitely worth while where there is so much differentiation? Perhaps. There are several hundred thousand children going to school in this Province, and every one different. But the Province grapples with the problem and tries to make the best of the situation, tries to help all these children to make the best of themselves. In the trades and industries there are about 20 main trades; in commerce and transportation about 15 main trades. Altogether there are about 50 main occupations with many subdivisions. I am sure the schools can do much more to help men and women to do better in their occupations, and to get more out of them for themselves and for the community. Real gladness of experience from the performance of work, and joy from the achievement of a day's toil, enrich the worker in his nature and enable him to earn more.

A skilled occupation may be taken to mean one which yields a living wage, which has content that offers possibilities for differences in quality of output, and which gives opportunity for promotion, constituting one of a series of progressive steps in the industry leading to something better.

I won't detain you to-night by dealing with special training for the skilled occupations. I am going to confine myself to that aspect of my theme which affects the public school teachers of Ontario. There are many parts of training for occupations which do not lie within that sphere. I want to bring home to you, if I can, the meaning of your power as educators for occupations

within the sphere of your activity as public school teachers in this Province.

RECENT CHANGES IN SCHOOL WORK.

Why bother about any change? Why don't we let things go on as they have gone? Since we have achieved a good deal—I was going to say of notoriety—a good deal of recognition through our school system, why bother about any change? Because conditions have so much changed that people do not now get even the rather poor educational preparation for occupations they used to get years ago. During the ages boys and girls have learned how to follow occupations by helping grown people from the time they were quite young. Hardly anybody succeeded in becoming a good workman or good workwoman in any other way. That goes back to the time when man was struggling up out of savagery into some reasonable stage of civilization. He learned how to follow his job when he was quite young by helping some older people. He played himself into ability and worked himself into ability by helping his elders to do the necessary part of the community's task and day's toil. If you have a system and practice as old as that, so well grounded in experience as that, it is not well to accept some different principle as excellent only because it is called modern. There is always need for modifying the method by which the principle is carried out to suit existing conditions.

Now let me turn your attention back for a moment to a previous part of this discussion—this informal interrogating talk—by asking: What kinds of experience in school can children get that will help to develop intelligence and practical ability and co-operating goodwill and a quick conscience and good manners? The experience of working and helping people who do work in the way that results from the possession of those qualities. There is no other way of teaching children how to acquire these powers and qualities. It is not a question of looking on and listening and being instructed but of gaining experience through working and helping others to do work in that way. It is working that brings about these changes in the individual.

Where will you begin in the school course? How young? I remember speaking before this Educational Association some 15 years ago, making a plea for manual training. There was almost none in Canada at that time. It had been advocated but the rate-payers were not willing to have it put in as part of the public

school course or system—and only 15 years ago! But there have been considerable changes in the public school methods since then. Manual training and household science and nature study and school gardens have all been taken up. These may be called “practical arts” or “industrial arts” or “construction work.” They enable the children to appreciate the means and methods by which people carry on their jobs, by which society accomplishes its work. They do not teach occupations. They provide experiences by which the child learns how the world lives. It learns that by doing. We all know there are limitations to that kind of learning. Then about 12 and 13 and 14 these “arts” can be so directed as to become preparation for a job of a particular kind. In that way cultural practical arts become prevocational education. Then just past 15 and 16 they become definite training for occupations. So I take it that these forms of activity in the schools must be increased tremendously if we are to survive and be worthy of our inheritance and come somewhere near becoming a great people. That is a fundamental base on which all the rest can rest in security. Let me give you a few instances—I do not call them proofs but sidelights—from which you can draw your own conclusions in this field.

CONCLUSIONS BY MANY PUPILS.

Everybody complains that children leave school in this country far too early. Why? Because they do not want to go on; not because their parents are poor or do not want them to continue. The children have their way and quit. You know that in Canada about one-half of all the children of the public schools leave school before they get into high school! No! I did not mean that. If I could mean that I would rejoice greatly because I would be quite sure we were just about achieving something worth while. But about one-half of all the children leave school before they get into the second highest class in elementary schools. That is where we stand, because the children do not want to go on, because they are not interested in going on. And they have their way. How do other nations meet a like situation. They make the changes in the course of study, in the kinds of school work, that cause the children to want to go on. I could cite a case from England where in one city the children practically all went to school until they were 14 years of age. It is a poor city in regard to the wealth of the individual inhabitants. And in that same city the children came back voluntarily to con-

tinuation classes after they had gone to work, to the extent of 65% of all who left school. They came back by choice after they had gone to work. We do not find them doing that in Canada. Maybe our children are not susceptible to educational advantages. If that be true let us seek the cause and remove it. Let us keep them from being atrophied into that attitude towards education. If the schools cause them to lose their first love of learning let us change the schools.

I offer you an item or two of evidence. This from the United States. An investigator quizzed 500 factory children of 14 to 16 years of age. "Would you rather be in school or in the factory, if there was plenty of money in the family to let you go on?" 412 said they would rather be in the factory. Some said, "You can learn there right off how to do things, and in school they tell you, 'You ain't any good.' " If the children came to that conclusion, I would not blame the children but I would try and do something to make them arrive at a different conclusion.

OPINIONS OF MATURE PEOPLE.

Twenty-one of the leading educators of England—twenty-one men of high educational attainment—are chosen as the Consultative Committee of the English Board of Education. Here is what they said about the English schools a few years ago. "What they (the children) learn is often of an academic rather than a practical nature"—"They soon forget what little they ever learnt"—"Exposition, now often in excess, would be replaced in part by constructive work, and the consequent development of each child's individual power would lead to an increasing desire for a lengthened school life." That has been proven to be the case by actual experiment and experience in large communities.

Let me speak for a moment of the significance of hand work. It is not merely a means of training the muscles to do well something that will look nice. It is for the refinement of the muscles. I would have rather been brought up with my finger tips refined than have been compelled to idle hands as partial evidence that I listened well to all the fine points of fine behaviour that could be read or told me. There are your fine feelings from your mother, refined by doing things in a fine way. Besides refining the muscles, hand work is intellectual training. It develops social service qualities. It prepares a foundation training, in body, mind and spirit, for the future occupation. There is education for work and

education through work. There will come a time, if it be not here already, when that person only will be called a good teacher who can and who does teach the secret of good work and joy through it. In this connection a report of that Consultative Committee of the English Department of Education says: "There are, of course, other ways in which the curriculum of public elementary schools could be improved, so as to give the scholars not only a better education during their day school period, but one which would fit them better for further education—" "But the one outstanding fact is the need for more hand work in the curriculum." That refers to English Board schools that, in my judgment, after considerable observation and a good deal of study, are immensely better than our elementary schools.

It would be worth while for you to read, from the report of the Canadian Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education, the summaries of the opinions of business men and working men and working women regarding the effect on themselves of the processes of education that they experienced in Canadian schools. That Commission visited 100 places in Canada, held 175 sessions to receive testimony, and made transcripts of the evidence of 1,471 men and women. Some of those occupy foremost positions in industries, agriculture, house-keeping and educational work. The needs of the growing population of Canada, as stated by those witnesses, may be summarized as:

1. Hand-training and prevocational education in the common schools after the age of 12 to reveal the bent of the child's ability to itself, to its parents and to its teacher.

2. Something in the school classes to make boys and girls want to continue at school as long as they can.

3. Some provision in the way of secondary industrial and technical education for those who can continue at school from 12 to 16.

4. Continuation classes to be attended while young people are following some occupation to earn their living.

5. Evening classes for workmen and workwomen.

6. Middle technical schools to which men and women can come back, for periods of from six months to two years, after they have been working for some years.

In addition to these the witnesses presented the claims of the rural population and the fishing population for schools specially adapted to their needs. All were agreed upon the necessity for, and certain of the benefit from, classes and schools for house-keep-

ing occupations. Many witnesses recommended the establishment of correspondence study classes by central institutions in Canada.

BENEFITS FROM PREVOCATIONAL CLASSES.

I come now to mention one or two instances of the kind of thing in schools that I have been telling you about. A notable example of such a modern prevocational school is the Practical Arts School at Fitchburg, Mass., where children begin at 11 or 12 to do work having economic values, having selling values. Boys and girls of 11 years and over may choose this school if their parents so desire. In the household arts course, 12½ hours a week are given to the usual subjects; 7½ hours to physical training, music and supervised games; and 10 hours to practical household arts. In the literary course, 12½ hours a week are given to the usual subjects; 7½ hours to physical training, music and supervised games; 5 hours to a modern language and 5 hours to household arts. There is also a manual arts course. The pupils at this school are reported to stand as well in the ordinary school subjects as the pupils in other schools and to have all the other training to the good. Besides, they are laying up memories and habits of joy in work and study.

Here is a glimpse of the increase in the number of schools in Scotland which provide this kind of education in supplementary courses. This type of school has a great deal of hand work, construction work, prevocational work. The growth has been from 162 schools with 3,281 pupils to 1,945 schools with an attendance of 43,287 pupils; a growth of over twelve-fold in ten years. Within the last seven or eight years the movement has taken on a very wide sweep in England. Children of eleven and twelve, who are to leave school at thirteen or fourteen, go to schools or classes having what is known as an industrial bias, house-keeping bias, commercial bias, etc. At these schools from one-third to one-half of the time is devoted to manual constructive work. The schools do not teach a trade, but give a good preparation for the learning of a trade immediately after the children leave school.

In European countries these schools or classes do not displace general education. The classes themselves are called "Supplementary Courses." That is the term used also in France, where boys of twelve give about 15 hours a week to general subjects and 20 hours to manual and constructive subjects. Girls in France enter these schools at about twelve years of age, and give one-half

of the school time to general subjects, and the other half to hand work in some form of vocational training.

In Switzerland we did not find a single elementary school that did not devote from 6 to 10 hours a week to vocational handwork.

The benefits claimed for prevocational classes in other countries are as follows:—They sustain the interest of the pupils in school work; they discover to pupils, teachers, and parents the bent, tastes and aptitudes of the scholars; they develop a preference for following some skilled employment; they make children desire further education after they have begun to partly earn their living; and they do not hinder progress in other subjects of education.

After the hand work for boys was introduced into the schools of Munich, of the 2,200 boys who left school the first year thereafter no less than 2,150 went at once into hand work in skilled employments. They then attended the continuation classes.

Such classes have so much increased the interest of boys and girls in their own continued education that in the city of Halifax, England, 65 per cent of all the boys and girls who left school at 14 voluntarily came back for continuation classes in the evenings. In smaller places the attendance at these continuation vocational classes is as much as 5 per cent of the total population of the town.

The cost of carrying on such newer branches of education as experimental science, manual training, domestic science, nature study and prevocational work with tools and materials is relatively high. These subjects were not in sight or contemplated at the time of Confederation when the Provinces accepted the responsibility of providing and maintaining education. In view of these facts, of the public benefit which would result from such studies, and of the indispensable preparation which they would give for technical instruction, the Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education recommends that a fund of at least \$350,000 annually be provided by the Dominion Government and paid to the several Provinces pro rata on the basis of the population. That amount is separate from and in addition to the sum of \$3,000,000 which the Commission recommends should be provided by the Dominion Parliament to assist the Provinces in providing education for occupations for the youths of the Provinces after the age of 14.

RESULTS IN CASH AND IN CHARACTER.

At several places in the United States the half-time plan of industrial education is proving satisfactory. According to it, the boys who are learning trades spend week about at the high school and a workshop. The course is one of four years; the first year is spent altogether at school, after which the pupil goes for two months as a probationary apprentice to try out the shop and be tried out by the foreman. If and when accepted, he begins his 3-year course. The boys work in pairs, and are together in the workshop on Saturdays. That lets the boy, who has been at school that week, pick up the workshop job and go on with it without waste or loss on Monday morning. While apprenticed, the boy is paid at the rate of 10 cents, 11 cents and 12½ cents per hour respectively for the three years. He may earn \$552 in the three years. The results from the plan are reported as better apprentices and better students, more skilled workers and better citizens. The boy whose parents are not very well off can continue his education; his interest in his education and his self-respect are deepened and increased. At the end of his high school course he has a good trade, and can readily find a place and earn good wages. Boys generally stay to the end of the 3-year period. Foremen speak in the highest terms of the progress made by the boys. Employers are satisfied and entirely friendly. For some industries the half-time plan of industrial education is certainly the best; others it would not suit at all.

I could give you many examples from England and other countries. It would take too long on an occasion like this. The examples I have cited show that education for occupations can be given and gotten with great cultural benefits to the children. Besides, they are prepared to follow occupations with greater intelligence, with increasing satisfaction and advantage to themselves and immense gain to the whole community.

While this kind of education will cost more, the cost is a national investment of the most advantageous kind. It is an investment in the people themselves. By way of illustration let me cite Edinburgh. You will be indulgent to the love and admiration one may have for a city in his homeland. Edinburgh began this class of school work about 35 years ago with 410 pupils and an average attendance of 50 per cent of the enrollment. And when our Commission was in Edinburgh, in 1911, there were 821 classes with

421 teachers, and 10,000 pupils enrolled. The average attendance, year in and year out, stands at from 90 to 95 per cent of the enrollment. That is in addition to what they have done in the Board schools for children under 14 years of age. What about the cost to the city? Sometimes one hears grumbling in Canada about the taxes, but I don't remember hearing anyone grumbling about the amount of the school taxes. Well, this city of Edinburgh grew 36 per cent in population in 30 years, and increased its school taxes in the same length of time almost 490 per cent. No wonder the industries and business of the city are growing and improving.

APPLICATIONS TO RURAL OCCUPATIONS.

I must not omit at least a few words, indicating the bearing of this upon agriculture. This is said to be a farming country. But if one studies public affairs—from the policies of governments to the courses of study in schools—he will not find much evidence to support the assertion. I will tell you one thing in confidence from my knowledge of farming in many lands, that the agricultural land of Canada has more weeds to the acre than any other farming country I know of. That is becoming a national distinction that is not all the farmer's fault. We have most difficult conditions in climate and labour under which to keep land clean; and because of these conditions our rural population needs particular and specific education for its occupations. It is a national and individual duty to develop the best conditions for country life. We all want to conserve the best in country life. It should make for vigor of body, mind and morals. Its occupations create wealth annually. They afford a basis for prosperity for the workers themselves and for prosperity and stability to manufacturing, transportation, commercial and national undertakings.

We may learn many lessons from Denmark, a country that has not lost rural population to the towns. When my grandfather began his farming in Scotland the Danes were serfs, not freemen. When I was a boy, after Germany had taken from her two Provinces, when then as now the military, physical and intellectual power of Germany took their way regardless of moral considerations, Denmark was the poorest country in Europe. That was in the early '60's. And in 1910 Mulhall said that the Danes were, next to England, the richest nation per head in all the world. And Denmark's wealth is widely distributed. In that brief period,

from my boyhood to middle age, this nation has come from poverty to affluence and won the reputation, with Switzerland, of being the best educated people in Europe. How did they do it? By this kind of education. In schools the young people got experience in doing things, and in doing things together. The singing together and the study of Danish history and Danish literature were not unimportant experiences. Then it was natural to develop co-operation all over the country in all kinds of undertakings by farmers. You cannot teach co-operation from books any more than you can teach patriotism. They are developed by experiences in youth to supplement the feelings inherited out of traditions. By means of the People's High Schools the Danes became qualified for co-operation. There are over 1,885 different societies among the farmers for the improvement of live stock. That illustrates the extent to which the spirit and practice of co-operation prevail. That means a rich social life as well as great agricultural achievement. I will not detain you about that. But I can still feel the swing of the song of 275 Danish girls during the sewing hour at one of these schools—singing out of the fullness of their hearts great patriotic songs full of love of Denmark. We don't do that. We would not call that education. We would call that waste of school time, which should be dedicated to subjects for an examination. We need to combine the education of the hand, the head and the heart through the experiences of the schools.

Then there is Ireland, happy distressful Ireland. From these two countries Ontario may find illumination and guidance. When the Department of Technical Instruction in Ireland was constituted in 1899, there were only some 3 technical schools in all Ireland, and the attendance at industrial and technical classes was less than 2,000 pupils. By 1909-10 some 60 technical schools had been established, and over 42,000 pupils were enrolled in classes maintained by the Department, and the local authorities in 38 urban districts and 30 counties. In addition to that progress, 286 secondary schools received special grants from the Department at London to carry on work in experimental science, manual training, drawing and domestic science. Over 13,000 pupils participated in those classes.

In addition to the technical instruction for urban populations, there has been effective organization of agricultural instruction. The Department now employs 138 itinerant instructors in agriculture, horticulture, bee-keeping, poultry and butter-making.

Besides, there are 43 overseers and assistant overseers to assist small farmers, who have obtained their holdings under the Land Purchase Act, to begin well and to do well. In one district visited by the Commission the overseer received a salary of £100 a year. It was claimed that the value of the crops grown by the farmers in his parish was £3,000 more than would have been without his presence and instruction.

We in Canada do want a rural high school in every county, and a residence with a small farm for the teacher. He would become a powerful and permanent leader. There is no equipment more essential in rural life to-day than a good teacher permanently established in an official residence and small farm teaching school. That would be a way of getting the country boys and girls and the whole population improved through suitable education. I would have the Dominion Government provide the money for that residence and farm, and give a grant equivalent to two-thirds of that teacher's salary as a means of national development. Such a policy would be worth infinitely more than all the policies by tariffs that were ever invented.

A FORWARD POLICY FOR CANADA.

I have not told you all the things I had intended to say. I have missed some of the best of them. I have let myself be beguiled into dwelling too long on others of them. I am going to end by telling you what I think we might and should do, not in detail but in large outlines. We want a great forward policy for Canada. A great forward policy because of the war, still more than if there was no war. After the war is over what will it profit us if we have not developed and preserved those qualities of life that are the first fruits and the last products of fine education—justice and liberty and fair play—justice and liberty and fair play in carrying on the occupations of peace?

For more complete information as to the nature and plan of this proposed great development policy let me suggest that you study the report of Dr. John Seath on Education for Industrial Purposes, and the report of the Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education. The latter report recommends special provisions for industrial training and technical education under three main headings—"For those who are to continue at school in urban communities," "For those who have gone to work in urban communities," and "For rural communities." Some

of the provisions already exist, as for example, in the day and evening technical classes at different places throughout the Province. The proposal is that such as these shall be enlarged and extended to meet all the needs of all the occupations.

In all the Provinces there is evidence of progress. The provincial governments are not only responding to the demands made on them as far as their revenues permit, but they are leading, encouraging and guiding the local communities. Where most progress has been made in general education, there the advancement of vocational education is most wanted. The needs are chiefly three—money, specific information and enlightened public opinion. Hitherto support has come from local rates, county grants and provincial grants. The Royal Commission recommends that hereafter these should be supplemented by a substantial annual grant from the Dominion treasury for the specific purpose of the development of the people of Canada through industrial training and technical education—through education for occupations.

The opinion of those who appeared before the Commission was unanimous as to the need of financial assistance in some form from the Dominion Government. The form in which it should be provided was not defined; but the Commission presented an outline of a policy by which co-operation between the Dominion and the Provinces might be effected without the least interference with the control of education by the provincial governments as provided for by the British North America Act.

The Commission was of the opinion that industrial training and technical education in order to be of the greatest benefit to individuals, to industrial development, to localities, to the several Provinces and to the Dominion as a whole, should be organized and maintained in accordance with the following principles:

1. It should be under provincial control and regulation.
2. It should receive financial support from individuals, from local authorities, from provincial governments and from the Dominion.
3. Provision should be made for active participation in its control, management and direction by individuals in the locality who would represent industries as employers and employees, agriculture, women's occupations particularly house-keeping, business and organized education.

The revenues of the several Provinces for all purposes are derived at the present time, to the extent of some eleven and one-quarter million dollars, from subsidies from the Dominion.

The several Provinces, from their comparatively slender revenues, have to maintain public services of prime importance. On them falls the administration of justice, and the maintenance of civil rights. The care of the public domain, as well as roads and bridges, is a charge on their purse. They are responsible for the organization and supervision of municipal government. And heaviest of all are their payments for the organization, administration and support of general education. None of these provincial services can be neglected or starved without severe national injury. All the Provinces are doing about all they can with the means they have. Where is the money to come from for this new important and highly advantageous public service by means of education for occupations?

The Royal Commission recommends that in addition to any other subsidy that may be provided, the sum of \$3,000,000 per annum should go into a Dominion Development Fund to be spent by local and provincial authorities co-operating with the Dominion authorities for the purposes indicated. The Dominion Government has already indicated its ability and readiness to co-operate with the Provinces for development work, as shown in the Agricultural Instruction Act of 1912-1913, whereby a sum aggregating \$10,000,000 was provided, the expenditure to be spread over a period of ten years.

In making a forecast of the probable cost of maintaining an adequate system of industrial training and technical education, the Commission considered the populations and need of 566 places in Canada, besides the rural population in the counties. These 566 places, ranging from great cities like Montreal and Toronto down to incorporated villages of over 500 people, contained a total population of 2,790,000. In these urban places the number of persons between 14 and 17 years of age who were not attending any day schools is estimated at 150,000 young people. The population of Canada at the last census, outside the 566 places already indicated, amounted to 4,440,000, of whom 237,000 are young persons between the ages of 14 and 17 not attending any school.

If the proportion of attendance of these 387,000 young people could be brought up to that of many areas in England, Scotland and Ireland no less than 213,000 of them would be continuing their education at suitable classes after they had begun to earn their living.

Under the policy recommended by the Commission, there would be two Dominion Development Funds to aid technical instruction and training; one of \$350,000 a year to promote prevocational training by means of experimental science, manual training, drawing, domestic science, and nature study; and the other of \$3,000,000 annually to supplement local efforts in providing education for occupations for those who are past public school age.

FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE FOR ONTARIO.

The people of Ontario could draw from these funds to the extent of over a million dollars annually, besides receiving from Dominion authorities the co-operation and advisory help of highly-trained and experienced counsellors in starting new kinds of schools, as for example for textile workers, and in the development of new industries.

In Ontario there are 39 towns and cities each with a population of over 5,000. These contain a total population of 953,896. It is estimated that within seven years after the policy was well begun there would be in these 39 places about 30,000 pupils in the schools for the education for occupations of those over 14 years of age. These towns and cities could draw from the Dominion Development Funds up to \$380,000 a year.

The following list indicates in round figures to what extent each city and town in Ontario might receive assistance in maintaining suitable classes:

Eastern Ontario.	Annually up to
Ottawa	\$34,800
Kingston	7,500
Belleville	3,900
Brockville	3,700
Cornwall	2,600
Smith's Falls	2,500
Pembroke	2,000

Central Ontario.	
Toronto	\$140,000
Peterborough	7,300
North Bay	3,000 to 2,500 each
Oshawa	
Lindsay	
Orillia	
Barrie	

Cobalt	}	\$2,000 each
North Toronto		
Port Hope		
Cobourg		

Western Ontario.

Hamilton	\$ 32,500	
London	18,500	
Brantford	9,000	
Windsor	}	6,000 each
Fort William		
Berlin		
Guelph		
St. Thomas	5,500	
Stratford	}	1,500 each
Owen Sound		
St. Catharines		
Port Arthur		
Sault Ste. Marie	}	4,500 each
Chatham		
Galt		
Sarnia		
Niagara Falls	}	3,500 each
Woodstock		
Collingwood		
Kenora		
Welland	2,000	

THE PRIME PUBLIC QUESTION.

The Commission believes that the best course for Canada to follow is for the Dominion Government to assume definite responsibility for a proportion of the burden of expense for this new and important national movement. Then, as the burden grows and the cost is correspondingly increased, the load will be carried easily by the broadest strongest back. The policy does not involve the assumption of any control or any regulation of education by the Dominion authorities. Provisions are suggested by means of which hearty and friendly and mutually helpful co-operations can be entered upon and continued by mutual consent.

This is a great public question, this question of the education of our people for occupations. It is the prime public question, except only the war in the meantime. It is first in urgency for action because those who miss education now can never come back to youth to have a chance. It is the only policy for Canada on which all are united. No one dissents from the proposition that the national, provincial and local resources should be used to help all the people to be intelligent and capable and animated by goodwill. It is the one big policy over which all can become enthusiastic and glow and grow into power. All can participate; all will benefit. There are two kinds of animation—animosity and amity. In ordinary party politics on public questions you have hot beds of animosity. In this great definite constructive policy we can have all blends of fine amity—all for the children, all for the young people, all for the efficiency and greatness and glory of the nation. If we devote ourselves to this great purpose we will have in Canada not merely a land of promise and a land of opportunity but a land of hopes realized.

THE FINAL PERSONAL QUESTION.

It will have been well worth while to have been born on this earth, to have had a share in the campaign. And when we each leave and go to the pearly gates perhaps the record of it will not spoil our chance at the "entrance examination." Our materialistic western minds do not lend themselves readily to the figures of eastern speech and to the wealth of eastern imagination. Who in Toronto, thinking of a great indescribable country of glowing glory and desiring to feature the entrance, would speak of it as a gate? I never saw a gate in Canada to stir the imagination. So I will stick to the simple narration of a real occurrence to help me out. I see three boys walking along the sidewalk towards Ottawa—20 years ago. The first one has one trouser leg up over his knee. I can see the muscles of his calves as he strides along, with a bit of some old cloth thing on his head for a cap. I can still see the carriage of his spirit, through his body, as he walks along. After him shuffled two boys in good clothes. They just shuffled along. What made the difference? The front boy had a string of fish; and the other fellows had not caught anything. That made all the difference. And now I have a vision of the pearly gates. You, too, can see them. We all hope to pass through. There is St.

Peter who has the keys, the old fisherman with 1,900 years of experience in sizing up fellows who want to get in. And you see his noble illustrious highness the late Lord Successful arrive. What does the old Fisher of Men ask? What wealth did you collect and how much did you leave? No, the old Fisher of Men knows real values and real sport. He is not impressed by one who spent his time collecting dead fish. A teacher who taught school for forty years comes along. You see the twinkle of joy in the eyes of the old Fisher of Men. What have you got? What did you do? "I could not save anything; I taught school in Ontario." "And you helped girls and boys"? "Yes, for forty years, perhaps ten or so a year as best I could." You can see the gates swing open. A fisher with a string of 400 has been welcomed through. I wish you joy in the game and like glory in the end.

THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE.

BY E. S. HOGARTH, B.A., COLLEGIATE INS.

In the preamble to the Constitution of the O. E. A., the objects of the Association are stated as follows: "They shall be to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching; and to promote the cause of education in Ontario." The aims of the O. T. A. as stated in their prospectus are (in part): (a) To unite all who are actively engaged in the public Educational work of the Province of Ontario in an association for mutual improvement and protection. (b) To give expression to a collective opinion of the teachers of the Province on educational questions. (c) To further the co-operation of trustees and teachers in all educational interests, and to be a medium through which those who administer our educational affairs, both local and provincial, may secure information and advice based upon the experience of the associated teachers. (d) To exert an influence in determining the qualification of those entering the profession. (f) To publish a register of the teachers of the Province. (g) To advocate a superannuation scheme. (h) To publish an educational journal. (i) To protect its members and discipline them if necessary.

Now it seemed to me that the general principles laid down by the O. E. A. include the more detailed outline of the work laid down by the O. T. A. Hence a small deputation from the O. T. A. waited upon the General Board of the O. E. A. and asked for admission as a general section. This was, after some consideration, granted.

The aims of the O. T. A. have not been as yet fully realized; but something has been accomplished. Through the courtesy and generosity of the Department of Education of Ontario, a register of all the Public, Separate and District Schools has been published, and is published each year. This register contains the following information: Name of school, secretary of board, name of teacher, address of teacher, class of certificate, salary paid, assessment of section, kind of building, value of school property, average attendance. This, it must be admitted, is a most valuable volume, and one which no teacher can afford to be without, and if the O. T. A. has accomplished nothing else, it surely has justified its existence in the production of this work. In addition to that it has been

of service to a number of teachers who have found themselves in awkward situations and applied to the O. T. A. for advice. It has also worked in co-operation with the committee of the O. E. A. in advocating before the Minister of Education and the members of the government the establishment of a superannuation scheme, which I am happy to say has been advanced so far as to be presented to the Legislature for its consideration. For this we all appreciate most heartily the work done by the Minister of Education, and his able deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, than whom, I am convinced, the teachers of Ontario have no more zealous advocate and friend.

There are some members of the teaching profession who have severely criticised the O. T. A.—some of them consistently from its inception, others because it has not accomplished all its purposes. Let me here state that pioneer work is always difficult, and that those engaged in experimental work always accomplish their end with heavy outlay of time, energy and, usually, money. Now why should we experiment or advance with doubting footsteps? England feeling the need that we have felt has now a powerful union with some 95,000 members, but their present standing is the result of forty-five years of earnest effort. Their early progress was extremely slow. They have now a permanent Secretary, Sir James Yoxall, M.P., who devotes all his time to advancing the interests of the teachers, and practically all their male teachers, and a majority of their female teachers belong to the Union.

But we do not begin where they did forty-five years ago. Thanks to the wise action of the founder of our educational system, and his successors in office, we do not labour under the disabilities which our fellow-teachers in England did. As an example of the attitude of some of the authorities in England toward educationists, let me quote the words of Mr. Lowe of the Education Office in 1862, when a deputation came to consult with him about the Code. He said, "Consult you about the Code? As well consult the chickens with what sauce they prefer to be cooked." Compare with that the reception which was accorded a deputation from the Teachers' Union which waited upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1912. "I think," he said, "considering the part which the teaching profession plays in the life of this country, and how much the future of the country depends upon not merely the continued, but the increased efficiency of that profession, it has in the past, and I will say up to the present, been shabbily treated in the matter of

superannuation. I think it is incumbent upon us to add to the inducements which have been offered up to the present for the best brains of the country to join the profession. It is vital, in the opinion of the government, that something should be done to improve the prospects of the teacher, so that he should not be weighted down with the anxiety that when either old age or disablement falls upon him, he will have to encounter poverty and even deprivation. For that reason, after a good deal of reflection and consultation, we have decided to increase, and increase substantially, the contribution which the state makes towards the superannuation of the teachers in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland. At any rate, I am very glad to have been instrumental in taking a further step forward towards meeting the undoubted justice of your demands."

This attitude towards the Teachers' Union was brought about by persistence in righteous demands and self-sacrifice on the part of a few to advance its claims. The enlistment of the mass of teachers in the Union was opposed, and retarded, as here, by those who felt that they were sufficient in themselves for the battle of life, and the holding their job as *they* viewed it. But surely that is a low and narrow spirit in which to view the work of a teacher. The teacher's life is primarily one of service. I mean true service, and while we should help one another, in so doing we should seek to uplift the profession, and thereby render the truer and more effective service to those under us. We cannot as teachers live unto ourselves, and be our best, and we owe it to ourselves, to our fellow-teachers, to our Education Department from whom we receive our certificates to teach, and finally we owe it to our pupils to make the most of ourselves by co-operation with and conference with our fellow-teachers in a constant endeavour to improve the conditions under which the teacher does his work. We owe it to the new teacher, and to this end we appeal to the teachers of our Province to show their *esprit-de-corps* by supporting in word and work the O. T. A.

Organization is the order of the day. So thoroughly organized are some of our financial and manufacturing concerns that they pay their head officers, who do little actual work, so handsomely that the stockholders have to forego their dividends. Can it be that our O. E. A. is so organized that the main executive has lost some of its very important functions, or may I perhaps put it a better way? Could it not assume duties as the general executive of

all the educational associations or departments of the province, which would bring it immediately into touch with these departments and assume some of the duties which the O. T. A. has been attempting to perform. Isn't this worth our serious consideration? And to that end I wish to bring to the O. E. A. a recommendation from the executive of the O. T. A., that a conference be arranged of the new Board of Directors of the O. E. A., and the executive of the O. T. A., looking to this end. I also wish to state that the secretary of the O. T. A. has been in correspondence with Sir James Yoxall, Member of Parliament for Nottingham, the General Secretary of the English National Union of Teachers, and the prospects are favourable for securing him for the overseas speaker at our meetings in 1915.

THE HIGHER PATRIOTISM.

BY REV. JOHN MACNEILL, B.A.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,—It will be utterly out of the question, I am sure, at this late hour to give the address I had been asked to prepare in connection with this subject.

If your patriotism is strong enough to stand by it until the end I will try to do so.

It is only a very few weeks ago that Mr. A. G. Gardiner, that very brilliant editor of the London Daily News, speaking of the great cataclysm of the present war, declared that in the reconstruction of society that was bound to follow there is not one phase of our civilization that shall not be compelled to pass under the severest scrutiny and perhaps to undergo the most radical change. It is altogether likely that Mr. Gardiner will not be compelled to wait until the end of the war to see the work begun. The truth of the matter is that the scrutiny and revision are now well upon their way. We are testing once again all the values of our civilization. In the great pressure of the present moment we have found that many things have gone by the board that we thought would very likely remain with us. One of them, for instance, is our intense individualism. The interests of the individual have been very largely swallowed up in the interests of society. Those vast schemes, for instance, of special privilege and vested interests and private prerogative have been swept aside by one stroke, and in England, especially, the only political doctrine that is now extant is the political doctrine of the necessity of the nation as a whole. It is the same with our ideas of government. Our old notions of government have been suddenly and severely shattered. We have been led, especially at the seat of the Empire itself to find Parliament suddenly entrusted with powers that almost stagger our democratic ideas. The Cabinet reconstructs the whole social fabric before your eyes while you wait. Bills are passed through the House of Commons without debate. Under pressure of the national danger we find that the railways, the banks, the steamboat lines, the newspapers are all commissioned by the government without a word of protest. The doctrine of private ownership has been set aside in some directions and you can almost hear the contented purring of the Socialist as he stands back and watches this swift

and silent revolution accomplished by one day's stress of war and which could not be accomplished by all the years of his propaganda in the past. So it is in every phase of our national, our political and our social fabric. They say that the map of Europe is changing. Well, it is true that the face of society is changing too. Of course there is a sense in which we are far too near these great events to see them clearly or to understand their power. The roar of cannon deafens us! The dust of the battle blinds us! The rush of events dazzles us! The passion of the hour carries us by storm! We cannot see far enough back to see all the causes that are at work. We cannot see down deep enough to discern the forces that are operating. We cannot see far enough ahead to see all the possibilities of the future. All we know is this; that when the great wreckage of society is gathered together afterwards there will be some new values and some new standards that will obtain. We know not what they will be. We know not where they will lead. All we know is that in the present moment the whole world is in the melting pot; society can never be the same as it was before and there is a sense in which our civilization is "wandering between two worlds—one dead; the other powerless to be born."

Now, in all this revision of our values it is very evident that a great change will pass,—and indeed must pass,—upon the whole conception of what true patriotism must be. Indeed, that change is already here. There is no man in this audience to whom his patriotism is quite the same as it was before last August. The change has passed upon us whether we would or not. We are confronted by new national dangers. We are compelled to bear new national burdens. We are saddled with new national duties. We are crucified upon a new national cross. Our hopes, our aims, our fears, our aspirations, our sufferings are such as this generation has never known before and will never know again. We have discovered,—and I think this applies not only to the British Empire but to every nation involved in this war,—we have discovered that there is something fundamentally wrong with the patriotic conceptions of the days gone by.

I would not for one moment suggest in this presence that there is any blame attaching to Britain in her entrance into the war. But of this we are sure: That it was a false patriotism somewhere that brought Europe where it is to-day. It was a patriotism that was not in accord with the fundamental harmonies of human life. It was a patriotism that left no room for the fraternity of nations. It

was a patriotism that ignored the laws that underlie the brotherhood of man. It was a patriotism that refused to recognize the obligations of all in the rights of each and the obligations of each in the rights of all. It was a patriotism that rooted itself in suspicion and self-interest and greed and the lust for power. It was a patriotism that charged the political magazine of Europe with high explosives. It waited for its time and at last found its pretext. And when in the closing days of June, in 1914, the Archduke of Austria was assassinated in Servia the pretext for war was given, the fatal blow was struck, and within a month eight of the great nations of the world sprang into the arena armed to the teeth and have locked themselves in the most deadly conflict the world has ever seen.

Now, if we are to avoid the periodic recurrence of such national calamities it is very evident that some higher and newer conceptions of patriotism must rule in national life. And one naturally asks from what direction that newer and higher patriotism is to come. Perhaps we may get a little guidance if we go back and trace for a moment the evolution of the idea itself as it has grown and expanded in the succeeding centuries. A glance at its history will show that there has been a steady development from the loyalty to a person such as a king or a chief, to the loyalty to a class such as the nobles or the aristocracy, and from this to the nation and the people and the land.

And side by side with this advance there has come another advance in which we find a shifting from the interests of the individual to the interests of society as a whole. That is to say, the true patriotism has been steadily moving towards the democratic ideal on the one hand and the unselfish social ideal on the other. Of course we must recognize that all through the ages there have been flashes of both of those. You remember how Macaulay believed that he found even far back in Ancient Rome some little flicker of the democratic, of the unselfish ideal, when

“None were for the party and all were for the state;

And the rich man helped the poor and the poor man loved the great.”

And then we find that even in its evolution there are times when it passes under eclipse. It is a well known fact that throughout part at least of the eighteenth century the word “patriot” had become a by-word and almost a reproach throughout England.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain has remarked in connection with that period of England's life that there was no borough-monger so corrupt, no office-seeker so base, no scribbler so scurrilous that did not dub himself a patriot, and the man who was opposed to him of course was a traitor to his country. It was this that led Samuel Johnson to say that "patriotism was the last refuge of every scoundrel," and Junius was driven to the conviction that "nothing would satisfy a patriot but a place." It is greatly to be feared, and regretted also that even in our own day, and in our own land, both Johnson and Junius, if they were here, could find abundant reason to justify their views.

I must pass over a large section there that I should like to have discussed with you and come at once to what I should like to define as some of the elements of the higher patriotism, having in mind all the while the evolution of the ideal in those directions which I have mentioned.

I should say it will be marked at least by these three elements. There will be the elevation of soul above mere mechanism of law. There will be the elevation of principle above party, and there will be the elevation of service above self-interest. In the higher patriotism, I am quite sure, there will be and there must be the elevation of soul above all thoughts of that which is mechanical and tangible. What I mean is that the cohesive power that binds the state together will be the soul rather than the power of visible force. I could find no better illustration for that than the very striking contrast you may find, for instance, between the genius of the German Empire on the one hand and the genius of our own great British Empire upon the other. Whenever Germany with her highly centralized government and over organized institutions, has contemplated the fabric of our British Empire she has almost invariably curled her lips in scorn. Over and over again she has said that the fabric of our British Empire because of its scattered character was like a house of cards that needed only the pressure of some great crisis such as this present one to send the whole thing tumbling to its ruin. And when you look upon the mere outward form of it there seems to be a great deal that will bear out the German contention.

I was reading only the other day an article by one of the leading American journalists under the title, "That Funny, Funny British Empire." And he goes on to say that the British Empire

is illogical, it is unscientific, it is unreasonable, it is ill-defined. Yes, it is all that. There are no two units of its government that are the same. It is a strange conglomeration of Crown Colonies and Independencies and Protectorates and Dependencies with all forms of self-government that are conceivable in the imagination of man. And Canada has one form and South Africa another and Australia another and Ireland another—or will have—and Jersey and Guernsey another and so on to the interminable end. Besides, there is a marked spirit of independence within the British Empire that seems at times to threaten to tear the whole thing to pieces. When Britain has no enemies without she seems to have them within. If it is not Ireland, then it is India. If it is not India it is Canada snarling at the heels of the old mother land. As that American writer said, "In the time of peace there is not a colony that will not come to the old mother land and say, 'Confound your stupid, fat-headed, unreasonable, doomed old arrogant soul.' But in the days of war there is not a colony that will not come and say, 'Count on me to the very last.'"

She has no Bundesrath or Imperial Council. She has no machinery by which she is able to secure the united movement of all her units. Marvellous thing! It is a funny, funny British Empire! She has no power of taxation, for instance, over her colonies but she has a wonderful power of inducing the colonies of their own free will to spend their last dollar, if need be, for men and ships for the defence of the old mother land. She has no power of conscription by which she can raise an army but she has marvelous power of inducing her sons to step out of their own free will and lay down their lives on the plains of India or the veldt of South Africa or the trenches of Belgium and France. She has no rigid rule of loyalty, so far as her throne is concerned but then she has a wonderful power of keeping alive across the tumbling seas and half-way round the world—that undying sentiment that binds her sons to her with bonds that are stronger than the hooks of steel. She has no iron hand by which she will suppress and crush the aboriginal tribes away in Africa, but she has a marvelous way of winning their respect and their allegiance, and by and by their affection, so that 15 years after South Africa was slaughtering Britain's sons on the South African veldt she is now sending her own sons to the defence of the Empire she tried then to destroy. Oh, yes, it is a funny, funny British Empire! She is illogical;

she is unscientific, she is unreasonable, she is ill-defined, but she is great with the greatness of a mighty soul.

“God scatters her sons like seeds on the lea
And they root where they fall, be it mountain or furrow.
They come to remain and remember, and she
In their hopes will rejoice in a blissful to-morrow.”

Again the higher patriotism will be a patriotism that will always lift principle above party. I should not like to be understood for a moment as being opposed in my thoughts to the idea of a party system in our government. The truth of the matter is that our party system is here; in all likelihood it will remain, and it is here either for better or for worse in the political system of the land. By the Providence of God for many centuries now we have seen the great flood tides of political reform pour themselves along the channels of party government. Sometimes we think that we might have found other channels that would serve our purpose better, but like the denominational unit in the life of the Church it may be that our party system is the best expedient for the articulation of all the varied views and the varied activities of our national life. However that may be, we do know this that the higher patriotism must be something that will go far beyond the loyalty to a mere party. The party will only be a means to an end. Our watchword can never be, “My party right or wrong.” I pity the man who cannot see beyond his party. No man is so likely to become a traitor even while he thinks himself a patriot. If he is determined to stand by his party through thick and thin there will be times when he will crucify his nation afresh and put her to open shame before the world.

The patriotism that is going to be worth anything at all must go down to root itself in the great rich soil of principle. To use the splendid words of Bolingbroke—a phrase, I am afraid, that he did not live up to very well: “The true patriotism,” he says, “is based upon great principles and supported by great virtues.” There is no other foundation upon which it can ever rise or grow. For principles are universal; parties are local. Principles are eternal; parties are transient. Principles are pure; parties are prejudiced. Principles are inviolate; parties are corruptible. There is nothing worse that could ever happen in our Canadian life than to start out raising Liberals simply in order that we might have a Liberal Government, and perhaps the only thing

that might be worse would be that we might start out raising Conservatives in order that we might have a Conservative Government. No, we ought to go far beyond the idea of parties. We ought to be able to set aside any man, no matter what his political stripe may be, who will abuse the high public trust that has been imposed in him. We ought to be able to go so far beyond our party that we shall blot out at one stroke, if need be, any national curse no matter what party may seem to go down in the meantime in connection with it. We ought to go so far beyond our party that we shall brand with the stigma of traitor any man, no matter what camp he belongs to, who takes advantage of Canada's present stress, and trades upon the blood of her sons. We ought to be able to go so far beyond our party that we shall stand to the eternal principles of right and justice and liberty, no matter though it may send our party out into the wilderness of popular criticism and into the darkness of a political death.

You remember Browning's patriot. Browning portrayed the man who just the year before had been the idol of the people; who now, a year to the very day, is on his way to the scaffold to die because he is unwilling to yield himself to the mad fancies of a fickle mob. But he carries within him a clear conscience and the recognition of this fact that he has done the will of God before the eyes of men. He says:

“It was roses, roses, all the way,
 With myrtle mixed in my path like mad;
 The house-roofs seemed to heave and sway,
 The Church-spires flamed, such flags they had,
 A year ago on this very day.

* * * * *

“There's nobody on the house-tops now—
 Just a palsied few at the windows set;
 For the best of the sight is, all allow,
 At the Shambles' Gate—or, better yet,
 By the very scaffold's foot, I trow.

“I go in the rain, and, more than needs,
 A rope cuts both my wrists behind;
 And I think, by the feel, my forehead bleeds,
 For they fling, whoever has a mind,
 Stones at me for my year's misdeeds.

“Thus I entered, and thus I go!

In triumphs, people have dropped down dead.

“Paid by the world, what dost thou owe

Me?”—God might question; now instead,

’Tis God shall repay: I am safer so.

Let me keep you just a few minutes longer while I emphasize the third point I wish to make. And that is, that the higher patriotism will always elevate service above self-interest. That is to say, every nation exists not for itself alone but for the sake of every other nation. And every individual exists not for the sake of his nation alone, but for the sake of the whole race to which he belongs. Of course, it goes without saying, that we have little sympathy with that vague humanitarianism that detaches itself from any country in particular and seems to think that it may find a patriotic field in the great wide plains of human life regardless of any national expression whatever. I do not think that is the Divine Order so far as our human life is concerned. That man will serve all nations best who serves his own nation best. And if I might paraphrase those great words of Polonius in *Hamlet*:

“To thine own land be true,

“And it shall follow as the night the day;

“Thou canst not then be false to any land.”

I shall not detain you—though I had wished I might in connection with this part of my subject. How necessary it is for us to get a conception of our national service throughout the whole wide world. There are two very striking examples that I want to mention just in a minute each.

One of them from the very highest place of power almost and one from what we think of as the lowest circle of our life. One of them is from Belgium. Dr. Charles Sarolea, in his very notable book just issued on “How Belgium Saved Europe,” has called attention to this very striking fact, of which we are all aware I am sure, that in the moment when war was declared Belgium had before her two courses of action. One was the course that appealed to self-interest. She might have saved her commerce. She might have saved her ancient monuments of art. She might have saved her homes. She might have saved her people. She chose rather to serve the great interests of humanity as a whole and stood for

a little while in the breach of Europe to check the merciless aggression of a cruel and unscrupulous foe. The other example is coming from one of the lower circles of our life, a circle of life, however, in which you are intensely interested. I had brought to my attention not very long ago, and I was glad it came, the work of the League of Empire that is seeking to reach its hand throughout every part of our great Empire. And one thing in connection with their work that touched me very greatly—and it is right along the line that Prof. Robertson has been emphasizing in the work of the children—was to see those blank folios that are provided for the schools in which the children paste the news from the home town, and these are sent to the men that are in the trenches. I say, there is the beginning of the cultivation of the great conception of service that must always underlie any true ideas of patriotism and no patriotism is worth our while that simply centers itself in our own self interest and forgets the wider and larger field of humanity to which we must bring our contribution as a nation.

The Minister must always come to his application if he is a preacher at all. And so I should have taken about five or ten minutes to apply this very vital theme to the conscience of the teachers who are listening to me. I know I may dismiss it all just in one sentence. I need not remind you, for instance, how very closely you stand to that great work of which I have just hinted to-night, the cultivation of the higher patriotism in the life of our country. You hold in your hands the plastic life of the child. Whether it be by precept or by example, it lies within your power as perhaps it lies within the power of very few to instil into their minds the true conception of the higher patriotism we must cultivate. See to it, then, will you, that there will be the elevation of soul above mere law. See to it that there will be the elevation of principle above the conception of party. See to it that there will be the elevation of service above the idea of self-interest—and if you do that well, as some of us will try to do it in other departments also, then we shall have in the future generation a company of patriots of which Canada will not need to be ashamed.

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

LIBERTY IN THE SCHOOL.

BY PETER SANDIFORD, M.Sc., PH.D.

Liberty has to do with the rights of the individual. Each individual, however, is perforce a member of society. Society, for its own well-being, imposes obligations upon all its members. Each must obey the laws of the society. The laws represent the restrictions which the members impose upon themselves (in the last analysis voluntarily) in order that society may persist. The laws of society limit the individual liberties of the members. Each member of society feels impelled to develop and assert his personality. Such a development or assertion is sure to clash with the rights of others, that is, with the laws of society, hence throughout the ages there has been the contest of Law *v.* Liberty. Law, representing society, restrains and keeps the individual within bounds: liberty releases and emancipates him. The ever-present and ever-changing problem is—how to preserve the greatest liberty within the bounds of law? That is—how to grant the individual the right to develop his personality adequately without trespassing upon the rights of others. Law is the embodiment of the “rights of others,” or collective rights. It represents the minimum restrictions which must be enforced to keep society in working order.

Liberty then is indissolubly associated with individual rights. The limitations of liberty are the rights of others as expressed by the laws of society. As John Stuart Mill said: “The sole end for which mankind are warranted individually or collectively, in interfering with the liberty of action of any of their number, is self-protection. The only purpose for which power can be rightfully exercised over any member of a civilised community, against his will, is to prevent harm to others.”

As savage societies have fewer laws than civilised ones, it would seem at first glance as if savages had greater liberties than civilised persons. The argument is plausible, and the idea of the “free”

savage has been singularly attractive to the discontented minds of all times and places. They have raised as the cry of reform, "Return to nature," and have thereby forced themselves to magnify and idealise the liberty of the savage. Rousseau, for example, throughout his *Emile*, which begins with the well-known words, "Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the Author of Nature, but everything degenerates in the hands of man," tacitly assumes that the savage living in a so-called state of nature is far happier, and has far more liberty than the modern civilised man.

Surely these reformers have made a profound mistake. They have not recognised that the savage is hedged around with restrictions of every kind—taboos, sorcery, and witchcraft—and that his real liberty is small in amount. The road from savagery to civilisation is the road from restraint to liberty. At first the struggle was against arbitrary punishment by those wielding temporary power, and for the protection of the tribunals. When the right to physical protection had been won, the struggle was renewed upon the mental plane. The demand was now for freedom in religious matters, first a freedom of conscience, afterwards a freedom of expression and forms of public worship. The next victory was the securing of the right to discuss and criticise the acts of government and the right of meeting and association. This naturally led to the franchise—the political right to secure liberties by means of the vote, and indirectly to share in the government of the country. This right has not yet been fully won by women, but there are signs of coming victories.

Society may deny any individual right or liberty if it can be shown that its exercise inflicts an injury upon the people as a body. The whole question of liberty hinges upon this point. Is this act of an individual hurtful to society? Does it infringe the rights of the people as expressed by their laws? In times of peace the question may be settled in an amicable and just way; in the troubled times of war it is easy to deny liberty to the subject on the grounds that his acts are inimical to the state. The present time of almost universal war is one in which liberty should be guarded with a jealous care.

From some points of view a school is the negation of liberty. It is composed of young people torn away from their homes and from their play to be drilled and exercised in tasks that are often useless as well as uncongenial and irksome to them. Yet this is done in the name of state. We may well ask "Why should the

state control education and force compulsory attendance laws upon its young members?" The answer is a threefold one. Firstly, for the state's protection. When societies were smaller and the race was to the swift of foot and the strong of arm, they needed not to bother with the training of mind. But modern competition between states is for world markets and for other prizes in which brain counts for more than brawn. The education of the young of the state is now a supreme necessity, and for this many liberties must be denied. Secondly, the state must enforce education upon the young because of democracy. The really civilised parts of the world are essentially democratic, that is, the people are their own governors. Now, much learning is necessary for rulers, and thus we get the paradox that with the growth of liberty as represented by democracy, we are forced to curtail it, at least as far as school children are concerned, in order that they may exercise it wisely when they grow up. It is a case of present privation for future plenty. Thirdly, education is much too powerful a weapon for its control to be in the hands of a body smaller than the state, that is, the people as a whole.

But the denial of liberty to the young does not stop at this point. The pupil is not allowed to study what he likes, but what adults consider it good for him to study. This in the main is right and proper. The theory underlying it is that pupils are immature, and are not yet capable of judging what is best for them. From the adult point of view, the selection of the curriculum for the young can be justified in other ways. The curriculum has a double nature. It represents at one and the same time the preservation and the advance of human knowledge. The preservation of human knowledge is backward looking. It represents the things that adults deem valuable; the things that have been hard won in the past by the human race. Thus there is a traditional element in every curriculum. Subjects remain on a school programme through many generations because they have proved themselves worthy and valuable. To a very great extent children are forced to study the subjects their fathers before them studied. They are put through the same educational mill. The aim is to make them conform to the adult type; to make them literally "chips of the old block." But adults are not content merely to preserve knowledge through the children. They do not want the pupils merely to become possessed of what have been called "the spiritual possessions of the race." That would never be forward looking,

would never lead to the advancement of human knowledge. The Chinese failed to introduce the progressive element into the curriculum of their schools, and to this consistent looking backward can be traced the conservative and stationary character of Chinese civilisation. Hence modern nations have always a radical as well as a conservative element in their curricula. They are anxious that their young shall have greater opportunities for advancement, more wisdom and knowledge than their forebears. This radical element is invariably in conflict with the conservative elements of the curriculum, and, at bottom, people are sharply divided, according as to whether they stress the one side or the other.

But the foregoing is only a partial view of the situation. The modern state certainly forces the child to attend school; the modern teacher certainly forces a child to acquire a large amount of traditional knowledge, at the same time denying many other liberties, such as freedom of movement, and liberty to talk unduly during school hours. But on the other hand, this state organisation, which denies so much, is also the origin of many valuable boons and blessings. Were it not for the schools, education would still have to be carried on in the homes. School education has many advantages over that of the home. In a school properly organised by the state, the equipment is, or should be, both, adequate and hygienic. On the whole, schools are more hygienic than homes. Similarly the financing of education by the state, is superior to that of the home. The family is usually too poor to provide an efficient teacher for its children. Were the parents qualified by training to give an education to the children, and they usually are not, they have not the leisure to do it. In the third place, the state can more easily undertake the responsibility of seeing that none but qualified teachers are employed, and that they perform their duties faithfully. This it does through its supervisory force of inspectors.

Thus it is seen that the organisation of schools by the state increases the efficiency of the educational process. The child has now a much better chance than he formerly had of developing his native gifts. Without these modern opportunities many latent powers would never be discovered, and thus be lost to the world. This organisation, therefore, to some extent grants the child greater liberty, inasmuch as it provides more scope for the development of his personality. Hence another paradox: the liberty of children is restricted by bringing them to school and forcing them

to study a given curriculum, yet this very restraint grants them an opportunity of developing powers that otherwise would have lain dormant, and, to that extent, gives them greater freedom. For liberty grows as powers are freed; the wise alone are truly free.

Thus it can be seen that in every organisation there is a compromise so far as liberty is concerned. The liberty of the individual is never allowed to thwart the will of society as a whole. Society denies rights to the individual in order to give them to the group. The state denies freedom to the individual along some lines in order to give it along others. Everywhere there is a partial denial of individual liberty—a repression of personality. The eternal problem is where to draw the line. On the one hand we have the individual clamouring for his rights and liberties; on the other we have society denying rights and liberties in order that its organisation may persist. No sane person to-day would say that the child should not be forced to attend school or else obtain an equally good education in some other way. Nor would a sane person say that the child should not be forced to learn how to read and to write, and to do simple arithmetical calculations. Such knowledge is indispensable in modern states. Further, many agree that he ought to be forced to acquire some knowledge of at least one of the great arts of the world—literature, painting, or music. Some agree that he should learn some science. But there is as yet no agreement upon all the subjects of the curriculum. Hence the quarrels about programmes of study and the bandying about of such phrases as “fads and frills.”

If the preceding argument is valid, then the principle of liberty demands that there should be the smallest possible amount of coercion consistent with the safety of the state. Personality should not be hedged around with undue restraints, but should be given every opportunity for free development. With the young child, simply because he is young and ignorant, the restrictions are necessarily greater than with adults. But even he has his rights, which teachers especially should conserve. The teacher, therefore, must have the liberty to grant liberties. Every child differs from every other child; no two children are alike. To the teacher falls the duty of giving these differing personalities varied opportunities for development. This, at bottom, is the basic right of mankind, and providing the rights of others are not infringed by its exercise, should never be denied. On the whole this right is carefully preserved. Compulsion is exercised carefully in the modern state

—there is generally some loop-hole of escape. Only when the good of society as a whole is jeopardised, is there felt a justification for enforcing conditions upon a number of dissenting individuals.

Hence there obtains the circle—the child must be given freedom by the teacher, the teacher by the Department of Education, the Department of Education by the Legislature, the Legislature in its turn by the people themselves. If rights are denied at any point in the circle the effects fall ultimately upon the helpless children in school. And it is no uncommon thing to find children the innocent victims of a denial of liberty by one of the various educational authorities placed over them. A person in power inevitably tends to aggrandize his office. This is peculiarly true of educators, because they continually have to deal with the young, who are not in a position to resist or retaliate; but if liberty is worth the name, it is worth making sacrifices for, even if the sacrifices are those of self-esteem.

As these views of liberty become more widely disseminated, a new spirit will grow up in the schools—a spirit which is too big to bully, a spirit which is sufficiently strong to grant liberties boldly when liberties are beneficial, and to withhold them when they are harmful. Childhood will take on a new meaning, and the words of the teacher, who said of the children, “Of such is the Kingdom of Heaven,” will be more frequently recalled.

*REPORT OF SUB-COMMITTEE ON THE RELATION OF
SECONDARY TO ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.*

To the Chairman, Committee on Secondary School Studies:

Dear Sir,—In pursuance of instructions received from the General Committee, your Sub-Committee on the Relation of Secondary to Elementary Schools, presents herewith a brief report.

You will notice that the report deals almost wholly with a description of conditions and movements as they exist in those countries with which Ontario is supposed to have the strongest educational affinities, and from which, in consequence, lessons of example or of warning may most readily be derived.

Apart from the endorsement of that section of the report of the General Committee which speaks of the desirability of beginning, in the case of certain pupils, the instruction in certain so-called high school subjects before the completion of an eight years' elementary school period, your Committee has refrained from making any recommendations. It believes, however, that there is another and a more important problem, a problem of which the question of efficient instruction in Modern Languages is but a part and not even the most important part. That problem arises from the division of our system of public education into three widely different and widely separated institutions, viz., the elementary school, the high school, and the college; institutions which, at the present time, are but very imperfectly adjusted to each other. It seems to your Sub-Committee that the College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association might very properly give some time to the consideration of this problem as a whole, as well as to the study of the various details in which, from time to time, amendment seems to be desirable. We are, sir,

Yours very sincerely,

H. T. J. COLEMAN.

W. E. MACPHERSON.

P.S.—For convenience sake the report has been divided into four parts, corresponding to the four countries studied.

ENGLAND.

It is difficult to make general statements with regard to schools or types of schools in England. It is only of recent years that

anything approaching a national system or systems of education has been developed, and most of the development has occurred within the last ten years. Although there is not in England that well-marked division between the system of elementary schools and the system of secondary schools, that we have noticed in France and Germany, yet in practice some such division makes itself apparent. Elementary schools, with the usual curriculum, are provided by local authorities, or by religious organizations. Pupils who leave these schools at the age of twelve or thirteen may continue their education by attending part-time classes, or evening classes, or they may go to a secondary school.

Until the present century, secondary education in England was provided for by endowed grammar schools or by proprietary schools under the control of religious bodies or joint stock companies, or by private enterprise. With generous government encouragement, however, many of these schools have come more or less under the control of the local authorities, and municipal schools have grown up. The total number of secondary schools drawing government grants in 1910 was 885, of which only 325 were directly provided by local authorities, i.e., boroughs and counties. There has been a marked tendency to co-ordinate the secondary schools (especially those intended for boys whose school life ends at 16) with the elementary schools, and so establish an educational ladder such as we have in Ontario. Schools which enjoy government aid and charge fees must provide approximately twenty-five per cent. of free places for scholars from public elementary schools. These pupils must be not more than 12 years of age. In order to encourage the transference of children from public elementary schools at an earlier age, a grant of two pounds is paid on account of these ex-public elementary scholars who are between the age of ten and twelve years. The system of free places is supplemented by a widespread system of scholarships given generally by local authorities. In 1911-12 the number of pupils in secondary schools who held scholarships offered by local educational authorities, was 38,000.

“The development of higher elementary education in England is now proceeding very much as in France. Provision is made for higher elementary schools of a specialized and technical type intended only for industrial districts. In 1906, as the result of the recommendations of the Consultative Committee, a new type of

higher elementary school was admitted for children over twelve, corresponding generally to the French *Ecole Primaire Supérieure*, and described as having for its object the development of the education given in the ordinary public elementary school, and the provision of special instruction bearing on the future occupations of the scholars whether boys or girls." (Ency. Brit. 11th Ed. 1910-11.) The curriculum of these higher elementary schools (age 12-16) includes English language and literature, elementary mathematics, history and geography, drawing and manual work for boys, and domestic science for girls, also provision for special instruction bearing upon the future occupation of pupils both boys and girls. It will be noticed that no provision is made for languages (except English) either ancient or modern. These schools in order to be recognized by the Board of Education, must be organized to give a three years' course. It may be noted that the cities of London and Manchester have recently converted their higher elementary schools into so-called "central" schools in order to have a freer hand in developing them along special lines, than was possible under the regulations of the Board of Education governing higher elementary schools. In 1911, after the withdrawal of London and Manchester, there were 47 higher elementary schools in England and Wales with an enrollment of 8,852 pupils. "It may be possible to supplement this system in the rural areas to some extent by 'higher tops' to the ordinary elementary schools in cases where it is not practicable to establish a fully organized higher elementary school; but for such 'higher tops' (i.e., continuation or fifth form classes) no central grant is available." (Ency. Brit., 11th edition, 1910-11).

The tendency towards the maintenance of social divisions in the educational system is seen in the existence of some three hundred and sixty preparatory schools with an average enrollment of thirty-seven pupils between nine-and-a-half and thirteen-and-a-half years of age. These schools are taught for the most part by Oxford or Cambridge graduates who have themselves attended one or other of the great endowed Public Schools for which they are now preparing students. Their curriculum differs in a marked degree from that of the elementary and higher elementary schools. Pupils enter at the age of 9 and at once begin the study of Latin—usually six or seven hours a week—and of French—usually two or three hours a week. The following composite table, based upon

returns from several private preparatory schools,† shows the usual work taken in these schools.

Average hours per week.

	Class 1, average age of 9-10. Hours.	“Top class,” average age 13. Hours.
Scripture	2.12	2.3
English	2.49	1.10
French	2.49	3.8
Latin	5.49	7.49
Greek	0	4.34
German	0	‡3.41
History	1.57	1.50
Geography	1.41	°1.17
Mathematics	5.23	5.38
Object lessons of Elementary Science.	.57	¶.53
Writing or Dictation	2.25	§.53
Drawing	1.31	1.39
Total*	29.84	35.2

In England, as in France, and Germany, earnest attempts are being made, not only to adapt the elementary school courses to the needs of those who are engaged in manual industries, but to enable pupils to continue their education beyond the age of thirteen or fourteen and while they are under employment, by means of half time schools or evening classes, attendance at which is sometimes made compulsory for adolescents.

†See Board of Education (England) Special Reports on Educational Subjects, vol. 6, p. 49.

‡Usually German is alternative with Greek, with extra French and mathematics; 58.6 per cent. of the schools do not teach German at all.

°3.7 per cent. of schools reporting omit geography entirely; 6.2 per cent. do not teach it to their top form.

¶72.5 per cent. omit this subject entirely; 83.7 per cent. do not teach it to the top form.

§One school omits it entirely; 38.7 per cent. do not teach it in the top form.

||In 34.2 per cent. of returns it is an optional subject. The above is the average in the remaining 65.8 per cent.

*The average total given above is not the sum of the various items of the table, but is the average of totals actually returned in each school. No school teaches all the subjects enumerated. (Report U. S. Comm. of Ed. 1911.)

In considering the age at which students may be transferred from elementary to secondary schools, the report of the Board of Education (England and Wales) 1911-12, says, "Taking the country as a whole, the general tendency is undoubtedly to encourage entry to a secondary school at about the age of 12 or even earlier."

"The chief reason for adopting such a course is that higher education necessarily involves the study of certain subjects which under existing conditions of staff, premises, and organization cannot ordinarily be begun in elementary schools. It is urged that children who propose to follow a more extended course of education up to the age of 16 should begin some, if not all, of these subjects not later than the age of 13; and as it is at present difficult, if not impossible, to make arrangements for teaching them to selected candidates in the elementary schools, transference to the secondary school ought not, under ordinary circumstances, to be postponed beyond that age. An early beginning is felt to be particularly important for the study of foreign languages; so much so, that in a few secondary schools, where literary and linguistic studies are carried to an advanced standard, scholarships are occasionally awarded even to children of 10. The advantage of a comparatively early age of transference for the proper organization of work in the secondary school is emphasized by the practice, which is now adopted by a number of local education authorities, of requiring from parents, as a condition of admission, a written agreement to keep their children in attendance for a period of three or even four years. To some extent also it makes for the convenience and good organization of the elementary school that the children intended for secondary schools should be transferred before classes are definitely constituted for teaching of handicraft and domestic subjects, which rightly play an increasingly important part in the later years of elementary school life."

"On the other hand a small minority of local education authorities adopt a considerably higher age limit, e.g., Durham County, 12-15, which is to be reduced next year to 11-14, and Salford, 11-14; and a rather larger number, while awarding the bulk of their scholarships between 11 and 13, reserve a limited proportion, in order to meet special circumstances, for candidates under 14. These exceptions to the usual practice are to some extent, no doubt, a survival of the comparatively recent system of awarding

special scholarships to intending teachers, to provide for two years' education at preparatory classes forming part of a secondary school, before their engagement as pupil-teachers."

"The chief reason, however, for the higher age limit, is the objection to closing the door of promotion on children of late development, who are outstripped at an earlier age by their more precocious companions, or on children whose parents decide late to let them continue at school. This argument undoubtedly has weight, and it is obviously desirable that exceptional children, who through ill-health or some other unavoidable cause have missed an early chance of a scholarship, should have a later opportunity of proving their worth. But experience tends to show that a child who does not show special promise in the ordinary elementary school subjects till he has passed the age of 13, is probably too old to derive much advantage from the extended course of a secondary school, especially as economic conditions will often be against his remaining long enough to counteract the handicap of his late admission. The evidence of the head masters and the head mistresses of secondary schools, which in this matter is naturally entitled to great weight, is generally to the effect that children admitted at the age of 13 have to be placed in the same forms and pass through the school at the same pace as those who enter at 11 or 12; while in some cases it is even asserted that the younger children show marked superiority in alertness, intelligence and adaptability. The plan adopted by several authorities to meet the case of children of late development, or of those whose education has been handicapped by ill-health, is to offer a small proportion of scholarships for which children either in elementary or in secondary schools are eligible up to the age of 14, with a proportionately higher standard of examination. Some such safeguard is specially needed where, as is the case in London, the scholarship regulations would otherwise allow a child only one opportunity of competing."

The same report (p. 28) dealing directly with the problem of co-ordination between elementary and secondary schools, points out, as an argument for early transference from elementary to secondary schools, the difficulty the older elementary school student finds in accommodating himself to the curriculum of the secondary school. It goes on to consider attempts which have been made to diminish these difficulties either by altering the cur-

riculum of the elementary school, or by special organization of the secondary school. "It has sometimes been suggested that the problem can best be solved by the arrangement of special classes of selected children at the top of the elementary school, and their instruction in a foreign language and some branches of mathematics as a preparation for the work of the secondary school; it is interesting to recall that, so long ago as 1874 Matthew Arnold advocated the teaching of Latin to picked scholars in the elementary schools, as being in itself a desirable addition to the curriculum. Such a solution of the difficulty, however, obviously requires both that the staff should be specially qualified and that the number of scholars proceeding to secondary schools should be sufficient to form a special class, if the interests of the great bulk of the pupils are not to be sacrificed to those of a few."

"In Nottingham the local authorities have endeavoured to provide for such scholars not only in a junior department of one of the local secondary schools, but also in two of the Council elementary schools. These schools are definitely organized and reserved for children destined for secondary education. They differ from the ordinary elementary schools mainly in the inclusion of French, Geometry, and algebra in the curriculum, and in being more liberally and efficiently staffed. Children are admitted, if they satisfy an entrance test, at the age of 9 or 10, and after two or three years' instruction and a further examination test, they pass on to the secondary schools. It is estimated that about 70 per cent. of the pupils received this special preparation for secondary education. While this scheme has features of peculiar interest and some undoubted advantages, there are obvious difficulties in the way of its general adoption. It is clearly applicable only in urban areas. Moreover, one of the conditions of admission to the preparatory elementary schools is that parents should give a written undertaking to retain their children, not only through the preparatory course, but also through a four years' course in the secondary school. It is very doubtful whether parents in general can reasonably be expected to make up their minds about their children's future at so early an age, and to bind themselves to keep them at school for so long a period. Nevertheless the experiment appears to be well worth the careful attention of other urban authorities."

SCOTLAND.

The classification of schools adopted in the latest code of regulations for day schools in Scotland, 1914, does away with the former terms, "elementary," "higher grade" and "higher class" schools, and divides all the schools (except continuation schools) into three grades, namely, the primary school, the intermediate school, and the secondary school.

The primary school gives an education based entirely upon English to pupils who are, as a rule, below the age of 14. A primary school may contain individuals or small sections of pupils who are being instructed on the lines of an intermediate school. The intermediate school provides at least a three years' course of instruction in languages, ancient or modern, mathematics, science, and such other subjects as may from time to time be deemed suitable for pupils who have reached a satisfactory stage of attainment in elementary subjects before entering. A secondary school provides at least a five years' course of instruction beyond the elementary stage. The intermediate school should retain its pupils until the age of 15-16 whereas the secondary school keeps its pupils until 17-18. The intermediate and secondary schools both provide education of a secondary type, but arranged on a basis depending on the number of years the student is expected to remain. The code furthermore says: "It is important that as between the secondary school and the various intermediate schools of the same district, there should be no unnecessary divergence of curriculum in the earlier stages so that transference from the one to the other may not be impeded."

Care is taken to avoid any hard and fast line of cleavage between the work of the schools of various types. Pupils ordinarily begin education of a secondary type at the age of 12-13. But the pupil at the age of 12 may continue his primary school work by entering one of the "supplementary classes" which complete his education at 14 or which lead by way of day or evening continuation schools to higher educational institutions of a technical or industrial character. These supplementary classes "have vitalized the work of the primary schools by providing special facilities for the more capable pupils without breaking up the unity of the lower classes. The classes are parallel with the last two years of the regular course but follow special programmes with vocational ends in view according to local conditions. The number of pupils approved for

transfer to supplementary classes in 1911 was 59,406, and the special grants allowed for the same, were claimed on an average attendance of 47,565 in 2,000 schools out of the total 3,369." (Report U. S. Commissioner of Education, 1912, Vol. 1, p. 502.) "The essential idea of supplementary course work is that of individual study under direction rather than that of class instruction. These older pupils, be they few or many, should have individual lines of study marked out for them to be followed up very largely at home, the teacher being resorted to as occasion requires for explanation of difficulties and review of work done, according to the well-known custom of older days in the rural schools of Scotland." (Scotch Education Department Circular 426, 1909.) The continuation classes provide four types of classes for further instruction of those who have left school. Instruction may be given in day or evening classes, but owing to practical difficulties is almost wholly confined to evening classes. Class I, for the completion of general elementary education (chiefly for those who have not attended supplementary classes). Classes II, III and IV provide specialized instruction in classes or courses of a practical or technical kind. Thus it will be seen the primary school followed by the supplementary and continuation classes may give practical courses complete in themselves, or may be an educational ladder leading eventually to some such higher central institution as the Heriot Watt College or other technical school, while the intermediate and secondary schools provide well rounded courses in liberal culture or form an educational ladder leading to the universities.

FRANCE.

The systems of education in both France and Germany have been affected by certain conditions not present in Ontario. The population in both countries is comparatively dense, and long settled; and secondary education is not, as in Ontario, a division between certain stages of advancement, but is a division between types of schools, each offering a course complete in itself.

In France the primary course extends over seven years, between the ages of six and thirteen. The natural culmination of the elementary course is the "Certificat d'Etudes Primaires Elémentaires," for which the candidate must be not less than twelve years of age. The holder of this certificate is relieved from further attendance at school; otherwise attendance is compulsory to the

age of thirteen. The usual organization of a French elementary school is as follows:

Classe Enfantine	5- 7
Cours Élémentaire	7- 9
Cours Moyen	9-11
Cours Supérieur	11-13

Beyond the elementary school the course of study may be continued through the Cours Complémentaires, the Ecoles Primaires Supérieures, and Ecoles de Commerce ou d'Industrie. The Cours Complémentaires are classes added to the elementary school similar to our fifth form classes in some public schools. The Ecoles Primaires Supérieures or higher primary schools are special institutions in different buildings, under different teachers. They are the high schools of the masses of the people. They provide at least two, and generally three years of study. To be admitted to these schools as well as to the Cours Complémentaires, pupils must have the "Certificat d'Etudes Primaires Élémentaires," and are supposed to have taken, for a year, the Cours Supérieur of a primary school. The curriculum continues and develops that of the higher courses of the primary school. Modern languages are taught in the general course and in the commercial courses, but not in the agricultural or industrial. The attendance at the higher primary schools tends to increase, and has been liberally encouraged by government grants for scholarships granted to pupils who have shown ability but whose parents could not otherwise afford to give them an advanced education. The Ecoles Pratiques or practical schools of commerce and industry, are vocational schools, generally under the control of the Minister of Commerce. They have attracted increasing numbers of pupils who might otherwise have attended the higher primary schools.

Secondary education in France is given in the colleges or lycées, whose course proper extends over nine years, between the ages of nine and eighteen. Whereas the primary schools are all free, charge no fees, and are intended to fit pupils for agricultural, industrial, and commercial life, the secondary schools appeal to a different social class. They charge fees, and they undertake to fit for university work or for the learned professions. The course of study culminates in the baccalauréat, the examination for which is conducted by the state, and is said to be about as difficult as

the examination at the end of the second year in our universities. The course in the secondary school is commonly preceded by a preparatory course which the child enters at the age of six or seven. Modern languages are begun in the second year of the preparatory division, i.e., at the age of nine. Since 1880 "attempts have been made to abolish the modern languages from all classes below the 6th class of the secondary school (age 12); but these have thus far proved abortive, partly on account of the opposition from the teachers in those classes who saw themselves in danger of losing the extra remuneration granted to holders of the additional modern language certificate, but chiefly from the parents who still clung to this instruction in the second year of the preparatory division, and in the 8th and 7th forms as constituting the only outwardly distinguishing characteristic between the programme of the elementary classes of the lycées and colleges, and the work given in the free public primary schools. The administration thus found itself confronting an annoying dilemma. The parents demanded these languages in the lower classes; the authorities were trying to co-ordinate the secondary school course proper with the primary school programme so as to make an easy and natural transition from the latter to the former. Since the lower primary school programme makes provision for modern languages, to comply with this popular demand meant to defeat the very purpose of the administration along the line just indicated. The languages are still taught for three years preceding the sixth form, i.e., 9-12, but only two hours per week, and a relatively small number of boys are entering the sixth form direct from the lower primary schools. The result of putting these latter into the class with boys that have been studying a language for three years can readily be imagined. The confused grading reacts both ways: in the upper form in retarding the class and in immeasurably increasing the burden of the teacher; in the lower forms in emasculating the work of most of its virility and seriousness. Such a condition of mal-grading would not be tolerated for a moment in the ancient languages or in mathematics, but just at present there seems to be no immediate prospect of ridding the modern languages of this incubus. The unsatisfactory condition of modern language instruction in the lower classes is thus not entirely the fault of the teachers, although it must be admitted that one ordinarily finds here the most poorly equipped teachers, especially where the instruction is entrusted, as is usually the case,

to the regular class teachers that have done the extra work necessary to gain the certificate required for this purpose. To make matters worse, the official regulations contain no specific instructions as to the modern language programme in these grades, merely disposing of it with 'two hours per week.' The recitations that I visited in these elementary classes were distressingly dull, but what more could one expect when the teacher is limited to the most commonplace expressions within the vocabulary furnished by the class-room and its immediate environment?" (Farrington, "French Secondary Schools," 1910.)

While the account given by Professor Farrington cannot be said to represent conditions universal in French secondary schools, it does point to a danger that is almost certain to arise in attempting to adapt the upper forms of public schools to the service of students whose future courses will differ materially.

Thus it would appear that the well-meant attempt of the government to co-ordinate the secondary school course proper with that of the elementary schools has not meet with much success in face of the desire of the people themselves to recognize social distinctions in the school system. But the government has made it possible for pupils to pass from the higher primary schools to the college or secondary school, and has fostered the movement by government courses open to competitive examination.

GERMANY.

In Germany, as in France, there is a marked division between the work of the elementary and that of the secondary schools. Each is a course complete in itself. Primary instruction is given in the *Volkschule*, and this is the course intended for the mass of industrial workers and the agricultural population. Secondary education is intended for students destined for the university and professional life, or for directive positions in politics and in administration, or for a number of trades.

The official classification of secondary schools for boys in Prussia is as follows:—

I. CLASSICAL SCHOOLS—

- (a) *Gymnasium*, 9 years.
- (b) *Progymnasium*, 6 years.

II. MODERN SCHOOLS—

(a) With Latin (semi-classical).

1. Realgymnasium, 9 years.
2. Realprogymnasium, 6 years.

(b) Without Latin (non-classical).

1. Oberrealschule, 9 years.
2. Realschule, 6 years.

There are many privileges attached to the courses in the secondary schools, e.g., pupils who have taken the six years' secondary school as far as the end of the "Untersecunda" of the nine year school may serve only one year in the army instead of two.

There is little co-ordination with the primary school, since even in the lowest type of secondary school, the Realschule, French is begun in the lowest form, i.e., at 9 years of age. In Berlin, however, the experiment has been tried in some thirteen Realschulen of beginning French in the third class from the bottom, i.e., at 12, and English in the 5th class from the bottom. So in Berlin many students do pass from the upper classes of the primary school to the Realschule.

On the whole there would appear to be in Germany little desire to establish uniform courses in schools of elementary grades from which one might pass in regular course to the next higher, the secondary grade. If social or economic reasons have not already decided the future of the German school boy, the parent must make his choice when the boy is nine years old, or transfer later to another course at the risk of losing a year or more of time. Yet it is worthy of note that at the meeting of the "Society for the Promotion of Popular Education" at Wiesbaden (1912), resolutions were adopted demanding the abolition of all schools that tended to foster class distinction and the introduction of a general common school system (such as we have in Ontario) that would give a similar training to all classes of the population between the ages of six and twelve, with the end in view of "developing the various abilities into definite forces for good in order that a harmonious personality may develop." This experiment is tried in the "Einheitschule" in Hamburg and other cities. In these schools children of all classes have a common education

up to the age of 12 and after that pass over to the Gymnasias, Realgymnasias, Realschule, or the higher city schools.

In the secondary schools proper there has been a marked tendency lately to postpone the characteristically secondary work till the age of 12 instead of beginning it at 9. The schools presenting this curriculum are known as reform schools. "Extended practical trials of it were not made until 1890; in 1898 this reform plan was working at 30 German high schools, two systems being distinguished,—that of Altona and that of Frankfort."

"In both these systems the teaching of French began in Sexta (elementary class, pupils averaging 10 years old); but the first added English in the third and Latin in the fourth school year, while Frankfort system, chiefly advocated by Privy Councillor Reinhardt, director of the Goethe Gymnasium at Frankfort on the Main, allows of only one foreign language (French) in the three years' course of common instruction, followed in the fourth year by thorough instruction in Latin; and not until the sixth school year (when pupils are about 15 or 16) is English added on the modern side (Reform-Realgymnasium) and Greek on the classical side (Reform-Gymnasium)."

"After six years' attendance at one of the Realschulen with satisfactory results, the pupil receives a certificate entitling him to serve for one year in the army, instead of two. The Realschule with six classes, which teaches French and English, but no dead languages, dismisses its pupils with this certificate." (U. S. Commissioner of Education Report, 1913, page 820.)

An interesting attempt to offer an advanced education to elementary school pupils who do not wish to, or who cannot take any of the secondary school courses, is seen in the organization of the Prussian Mittelschulen. "They are merely advanced elementary city schools, closely connected with the lower schools, but not at all related to secondary schools, that is, not leading up to them. They are intended to accommodate the sons and daughters of artisans, small merchants, shop owners, and the lower civil office-holders, who aim at a simpler and more immediately useful education than is offered in secondary schools, the graduates of which go to higher institutions. The real nature of these middle schools may be characterized by calling them advanced city schools; for, in fact, they can be found only in cities, where there are children enough to fill a middle school. Their students are, as it were, the result of natural selection, the more talented and ambitious young

people whose parents can afford to keep them a year longer under tuition than the majority.”

“These middle schools have recently (March, 1910) been reorganized by ministerial order, which provides (1) that they shall increase the number of compulsory grades from eight to nine, the lowest three, or even five, grades being parallel to the same grades in ordinary elementary schools; (2) that the local authorities may establish them without the three lowest grades, drawing the pupils from other primary schools, as high schools do; (3) that there is no objection to changing secondary schools without Latin (so-called *Realschulen*) into middle schools, if the local authorities so desire.”

“These schools teach the usual elementary branches, and in addition offer elementary instruction in French and English, natural science, mathematics, bookkeeping, shop and garden work. In girls’ schools woman’s handiwork is substituted for boys’ shop work. As a matter of course, these advanced branches, foreign languages, mathematics, and science, can not be taught to the same extent as is done in secondary schools, but they are taught with a view toward immediate application in business. Each school adapts itself to the peculiar demands of local conditions, some towns being more commercial, others more industrial, still others exclusively agricultural. In order that these schools may meet local needs, the prescribed courses are made elastic, due heed being given, also, to the different requirements of the two sexes.”

“Middle, or advanced elementary schools have been in existence for many years in Prussia, but in the statistical summaries of the state authorities they were always classed among the lower schools. Now the ministerial order recognizes them as a separate type of schools between elementary and secondary schools, hence their name. They meet distinct needs in large city populations, and are an expression of the tendency prevailing in Germany of segregating the social classes.”

“The Prussian middle schools are simply adding one more opportunity to talented and ambitious students to rise above the dead mediocrity of elementary education. They give their students an opportunity to extend and round out their elementary education, and offer them knowledge in a form which is practical and immediately applicable in business and shop, in office and factory while they act as apprentices. Thus, for instance, the students intending to enter commercial pursuits study commercial arithmetic, short-cuts, commercial geography, bookkeeping, and business

methods; even history is permeated, as it were, with reference to commercial tendencies and usages. The needs of the boys who aim at skilled labour in shops and factories are met, especially in the methods in which drafting, sketching, and manual work are taught. And the needs of girls are considered to a large extent. These middle schools appeal to pupils of elementary schools who can not afford to enter high schools, the tuition fees being too high and the courses too long." (U. S. Comm. of Education Report, 1910, pp. 477-9.)

THE UNITED STATES.

The many educational experiments which have been tried in the United States within recent years, and the many points of similarity between social conditions in that country, and those which exist in Ontario, suggested to your committee the desirability of a rather careful survey of American school systems with especial regard to the question under consideration.

In the various States of the Union the terms, elementary, secondary, and higher, as applied to the classification of schools, have much the same meaning as with us. The work of the elementary school is, as a rule, divided into eight grades (or years), and that of the secondary school, into four grades. In the vast majority of cases, and in all the town and city school systems (so far as the writers of this report are aware) each grade (or year) is divided into terms (or half years) for the purpose of facilitating the organization of classes and the promotion of pupils.

The purpose of the elementary school has been generally assumed, in the United States as in Canada, to be the provision of a general education suitable for all children, no matter what their social condition or prospects in life.

As a rule, the distinction between the elementary and the secondary schools, on the basis of the subjects pursued, is much more strongly marked in the United States than it is in Ontario. Another striking feature is the absence in many of the states of anything which corresponds to the Ontario high school entrance examination. The promotion from the elementary to the secondary school, while it generally involves a transfer from one building and from one set of teachers, to another building and another set of teachers, differs in no other respect from the promotion in other grades.

Within the last few years there has been a marked tendency on the part of many city school systems to vary in certain significant ways from the procedure and the ideals outlined in the foregoing. These variations may be grouped under the following:

1. A tendency to utilize the methods of the high school in the higher grades of the elementary school through the introduction of what is called "departmental" teaching. This means that the pupil of the seventh and eighth grades (corresponding to our fourth form of the public school) is under the instruction and government of a number of teachers instead of a single teacher as in our Ontario schools.

2. The introduction into the higher forms of the elementary school of certain high school subjects, such as algebra, Latin, French, and German. In not a few cases efficiency in the study of the last three is provided by the employment of special teachers. The study of these languages is invariably an optional matter.

3. The differentiation of courses during the last two or three years of the elementary school period. The chief motive in this differentiation has been the desire for a larger vocational element in the education of those children whose formal education does not continue into the high school. These newer courses are known sometimes as vocational and sometimes as pre-vocational courses. The use of the term implies an attempt to reconstruct the ordinary studies on the basis of their relation to the fundamental industrial activities.

4. In certain cities (of which particulars will be given later) this movement for differentiation has led to the establishment of intermediate or junior high schools, embracing, as a rule, the last two years of the elementary school and the first year of the high schools (the 7th, 8th, and 9th grades). In the general character of the organization and instruction these schools resemble the ordinary high school. The more practical arguments in favour of this type of school are very well set forth in the following extract from a bulletin issued by the Superintendent of Schools in Roanoke, Va., a city in which a school of this type will be opened next year.

EDUCATIONAL ADVANTAGES.

"While the physical advantages of concentrating the three grades are clearly apparent, yet of far greater consequence is the increased efficiency for training which will result from this arrangement.

“The central intermediate school will certainly tend to hold boys and girls in school from one to three years longer than they would otherwise come. Promotion from the primary schools to the central school would be looked upon as a most desirable and laudable achievement, and students will be easily led to attend this school, who now do not regard with proper zeal the promotion from the fifth to the sixth grade in the same building.

“The somewhat smaller number of teachers required will make possible a higher salary scale, and thus a reasonable per cent. of the faculty employed can be male instructors. This is not suggested at all as a reflection on lady instructors in the advanced grades, but for the simple reason that the average boy of fourteen years, and the average girl, too, for that matter, demands and needs a modicum of instruction from men along with the excellent training they receive from women. This feature will contribute to two much desired ends.

“First, ease of discipline which will over-balance the disadvantage of having a large number of boys of tedious disciplinary age together in the same building. Second, a greater encouragement of boys to continue through the grammar schools.”

You will note that in the foregoing quotation certain rather fundamental reasons are advanced in favour of this type of school:

1. The prospects of keeping in school for a longer period and under more favourable conditions, many pupils who now leave school at an early age.

2. The possibility of securing more suitable teachers and of thus providing a stronger moral influence than is possible under the old organization.

3. A more gradual transition from the conditions of elementary education to those of the secondary school.

4. The undoubted benefits which accrue in individual cases from the beginning of certain so-called high school subjects at least a year earlier than present conditions permit. It need scarcely be added that these benefits are most clearly manifest in the case of foreign languages.

You will be interested in the following summary of answers to a questionnaire which was addressed to the Superintendent of Schools in two hundred and eight of the leading American cities. In this

list all the States of the Union were represented. In each case the following questions were asked:

What is the length of the elementary school course in years?

What opportunities are given for the completion of the elementary school course in less than that mentioned above?

Is there any differentiation as to courses within the upper grades of the elementary school? If so, of what nature is it?

To what extent (if any) and by what means are beginning courses in the following subjects provided for in the elementary school curriculum: Latin, French, German, algebra?

The answers to the above questions furnish to a certain extent the basis for the generalizations which are set forth in the earlier portion of this report.

Of the two hundred and eight men addressed, replies have been received from one hundred and twenty-eight. Latin is found in the elementary school for one year in six cases, and for two years in eleven cases; seventeen cases in all. French is found for half a year in one case, for one year in three cases, for two years in six cases, and throughout the grades in one case, making twelve cases in all.

German is found for half a year in one case, for one year in five cases, for two years in ten cases, for more than two years in eight cases, making twenty-four cases in all.

Spanish is found in three cases, the reason therefor being, apparently, nearness to the Mexican border.

Algebra is found for half a year in eight cases, for one year in five cases, and for two years in six cases, making nineteen cases in all.

By way of summary it may be remarked that in sixty-six of the one hundred and twenty-eight cities reporting, one or more of the subjects, Latin, French, German, algebra, is taught to elementary school pupils.

Certain additional information received from the questionnaires is of sufficient interest to be mentioned here. Nine cities are planning for a differentiation of courses within the two upper years of the elementary school (the seventh and eighth grades so-called). Four cities have in operation an intermediate or junior high school, and one is planning the introduction of such a school.

It is important to note in this whole connection that eight superintendents of schools report what they regard as the failure of

experiments in the teaching of the so-called high school subjects during the later years of the present elementary school period. The judgment which they express cannot, however, be regarded as indicating in any way the present trend of educational opinion in the United States as regards the problem with which we are dealing.

When we come to a consideration of the wider and more theoretical aspects of the question we find that much attention has been given in recent years by various important educational bodies in the United States to the general problem of "Waste in Education." This is doubtless due in great measure to the widespread discussion of the problem of efficiency in all forms of industrial and social activity. And efficiency, on the negative side at least, means the avoidance of waste whether that waste be of material or of human life and energy.

While the reports and other publications which have dealt with the problem of educational waste cannot be said to express a settled conviction on the part of the American people as a whole, they certainly point to a very deep-seated unrest in the popular mind, and to a thorough going effort on the part of many leaders to re-shape educational policy in the light of a clearer knowledge of the social needs of the present day.

The space available in the present report makes it possible to refer only to one phase of the problem, that of the relation of elementary to secondary (or high school) education, and to but four of the more significant of the recent publications in which this very important question is specifically treated.

The first of these publications is the "Report of the Committee of the National Council of Education on Economy of Time in Education," published by the United States Bureau of Education as Bulletin No. 38 for the year 1913. Under the heading, "Economy in Elementary Education" is found the following statement, "The Committee agree that there is much waste in elementary education, and that the elementary period should be from the age of six to the age of twelve." They make in this connection the following specific recommendation:

"Include the last two years of the elementary school in the period of elementary education and begin the study of foreign language, elementary algebra, constructive geometry, elementary science, and history two years earlier. Under the heading, "The High School Problem," one reads as follows, "The proposal to

make the high school period 12-16 or 12-18 will adjust itself in the following ways: (1) It begins high school work at the proper time, and continues it to the recognized age of college admission or of beginning life (12-18); (2) it provides for a large number who begin vocations at 16, and it adjusts itself to the idea of an intermediate industrial school, 12-16).''

A second publication entitled "Preliminary Statements by Chairmen of Committees of the Commission of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education," (published by the U. S. Bureau of Education as Bulletin 41 for 1913) enumerates a series of problems whose solution takes logical precedence of the general problem of the content of the various high school courses. The first of these is, "What is the most effective division of the school course? Is it, for example, that which provides an intermediate school to include grades seven, eight and nine (i.e., the seventh, eighth and ninth years of the school life of the ordinary pupil)? The fact that this question appears so prominently shows clearly that the representative educators concerned feel that the problem of the general division of the school course is fundamental, and hence takes precedence of all questions as to the nature of the curricula in different subjects and in different types of school.

The question of the intermediate or junior high school is dealt with specifically in the Report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching on "Education in Vermont." This report is the work of a body of experts (so-called) and constitutes a "survey" of educational conditions in the state in question. The writer of that section of the report which deals with the secondary schools (Professor William S. Learned, of Harvard University) finds much to say in favour of this type of school as meeting a very genuine need in the state under consideration.

He finds in Vermont a considerable number of small high schools, poorly manned and poorly equipped. These schools, he remarks, are aiming at a goal that is beyond them, i.e., a four years' course. This, he says, is particularly true of the two-teacher schools, "little, straining, distorted, institutions, excessively expensive and excessively wasteful in proportion to their service." "The salaries of the teachers are so low that no college man or woman can afford to take them except as an unlucky last chance." "Save in rare cases, the burden of subjects and of class changes is so great as absolutely to preclude effective instruction. This, com-

bined with a characteristic widespread lack of experience on the part of both principal and assistant, and an exceedingly abstract curriculum, presents a situation requiring monumental endurance for even a determined pupil, to say nothing of the wavering pupil whom education seeks more and more to reach and hold. 'The two-teacher type of school is thus an actual discouragement of education.'

The solution which Professor Learned suggests is the restriction of the work of the smaller high schools to that of the first two years and the development of a system of central high schools in which the relatively difficult and expensive work of the last two years of the course can be carried on effectively by bodies of well-paid and well-trained teachers. "The lower half of the high school thus divided might then proceed to avail itself of one of the finest educational opportunities ever presented. It could make a complete revision of its unsuitable curriculum and its wasteful organization. The first step would be the consolidation of the first two years of the high school with the last two years of the elementary school into a compact, closely articulated unit to be known as the junior or intermediate high school."

The reasons urged in favour of this new type of school are in part psychological, and in part social and economic. Professor Learned's own statement of them is as follows:

"The considerations favouring the creation of a new school unit of this sort are of unusual weight. In the first place, a course beginning with the seventh grade puts the point of cleavage at about the age of the great natural divide in youth's experiences. All who deal with children at this age know that the adolescent is in a different world from that which surrounds a child one or two years younger. The years at this stage should deal with the rush of new impulses and activities in a wholly different manner from that familiar in the "grammar" school. They should be planned expressly for adolescents instead of passing, as now, in a desultory conclusion to the intermediate grades. In the second place, a well-constructed junior high school course would close up the gap, now wofully broad, between the grades and high school. Taking the child while still of compulsory school age, the aim should be to hold him through full four years. The failure of the present type of high school to do this is not greatly to be wondered at, and need not necessarily cause misgivings. The junior school would be much more sensitive to the causes of such failure, and could treat them

with a better chance of success than the present organization. Again, the leaving age in such a school would meet what appears to be a genuine demand. This is shown most strongly, perhaps, in the great elimination at the end of the first and second years of the high school as it is constituted at present. Many other indications show that a form of school would be welcomed which, while an appreciable advance upon the elementary school, would set boys at work at about the age of sixteen. Finally, reference may be made to the physical ease with which the proposal could be carried out. Practically all of the schools that this arrangement would affect are already housed with the elementary grades, and reconstruction would be wholly or largely an internal problem."

We find in the extreme west of the United States another school system which has been weighed in the balances of the educational expert and found wanting in the matter of a satisfactory articulation of the elementary with the secondary school. A little over six months ago there appeared the "Report of the Survey of the Public School System of the City of Portland, Oregon." This report was compiled by a committee of investigators made up of three university professors of education and two superintendents of city school systems with Professor Cubberley, of Leland Stanford Jr. University, as chairman. They unite in recommending for Portland a system of intermediate or junior high schools, and support their recommendation by arguments very closely resembling those which have just been quoted from the report of the Vermont Survey. This similarity in viewpoint between east and west shows how rapidly educational sentiment throughout the United States is approaching unanimity on this very important question.

HISTORY OF THE CADET MOVEMENT IN CANADA.

BY LIEUT.-COL. E. W. HAGARTY.

The history of the cadet movement in Canada dates back to 1879, and the movement had its origin in the Province of Quebec. In November of '79 the College of St. Hyacinthe, Que., and Bishop's College, Lennoxville, one a Roman Catholic, and the other an Anglican, boys' seminary, are recorded as having organized No. 1 and No. 2 Cadet Corps respectively. The Montreal Highland Cadet Battalion followed a month later. By January, 1880, Quebec had the first six cadet corps in Canada. But in February of the same year St. Thomas Collegiate Institute organized No. 7, or the first in Ontario. Then came London Collegiate Institute, No. 9, and Mount Forest H. S., No. 10, in March of the same year, closely followed by Peterborough Collegiate Institute, No. 13, in May.

The movement seems to have come to a sudden stop in this the year of its birth, for the original Nos. 8, 11, 14, 15, must have been weaklings, as they passed out of existence, and we do not find No. 16 until April, 1886, namely, the Morrisburg H. S., Upper Canada College, No. 17, and Guelph Coll. Inst., No. 18, organized in Oct., '86, Galt Coll. Inst., No. 21, in Aug., '87, and Montreal H. S., No. 26, in Aug., '89.

Of the 29 corps organized in the first ten years, that is by May, 1890, 21 had apparently belonged to Quebec.

In the first ten years Ontario had organized only eight corps. Between '87 and '97 not a thing was done in Ontario in the way of forming new corps. Meanwhile Quebec organized 14, and the total number now stood at 37. Nova Scotia had organized its first corps, No. 35, in the Halifax Academy in June, '96.

Now comes an awakening. So far the Dominion Government had done little, and the Province of Ontario nothing, to stimulate the movement. All the Ottawa Government had done was to furnish rifles, belts and bayonets, and on application it would detail a sergeant instructor for one month in the year to each school without expense to the locality. There were no qualified instructors on the staffs, and there was no provision for training such instructors. In 1898, however, Ontario and the Ottawa Government woke up. The province offered a yearly grant of \$50 to each educational institution reported by the militia authorities as maintaining an efficient cadet corps of at least 25 members under a qualified

instructor, who might be either a member of the staff or an officer or non-com. officer of the militia. The board might retain the grant and take the work out of the instructor, if he happened to be a member of the staff, or might turn it over to the instructor in recognition of the cadet training as something more than a self-sacrificing, patriotic work of supererogation. There were some enterprising boards that did manage to adopt the former plan by astutely bargaining with the eager applicant for engagement to the effect that he should do the cadet work without extra pay. That plan, however, did not work where an instructor had to be secured from the existing staff. In most cases, I fancy, the provincial grant was given to the instructor and treated by him as a fund for encouraging the boys to take an interest in the work. At that time the Militia Department gave not a cent towards instruction, and the provincial grant was all that the instructor received apart from the joy of doing something in which he was interested, and which he knew was for the good of the country. It was not until 1910 that the Militia Department felt itself bound to contribute anything towards instruction, when it provided a grant of \$1 per cadet as a personal allowance to the instructor.

But I said the Ottawa Government also woke up in 1898. The increased activity of the Dominion consisted in providing classes of instruction during the summer holidays to enable teachers to qualify. The teachers at first, however, took these classes at their own expense. In the summer of 1898 there were two classes at Stanley Barracks, one in July and one in August. I had the honour of being in the second of these, and as associates I remember Principal Coombs, of St. Catharines, Principal Murray, of the Toronto Normal Model School, Mr. Ivey, Science Master on my own staff, and Principal McCutcheon, late of the London Coll. Inst., not to forget the genial Jos. Reid, known to many of the older teachers present.

I say the year 1898-99, the year the last South African war broke out, was one of awakening. In almost 20 years only 37 cadet corps had been formed, and some of these had dropped out. From Nov., '98, to June, '99, 28 new corps were gazetted, all in Ontario. The list includes the following:—

No. 39 Woodstock C. I.	No. 42 Owen Sound C. I.
No. 40 Norwood H. S.	No. 43 Ottawa Public Schools.
No. 41 Port Perry H. S.	No. 44 Lindsay C. I.

No. 45 Napanee C. I.	No. 49 Goderich C. I.
No. 46 Brantford C. I.	No. 50 Toronto Normal and Model Schools.
No. 47 Kingston C. I.	No. 51 Collingwood C. I.
No. 48 The three Toronto Col- legiate Institutes (Jarvis St., Parkdale and Har- bord).	No. 52 Barrie C. I.
	No. 53 Niagara Falls C. I.
	No. 55 Toronto Public Schools.

Of the total number so far formed, 16 must have dropped out, because we find their numerical places filled by corps formed at a later date. The number of corps shown on the list does not represent the number of companies. For instance, the Toronto Collegiate Institute Cadet Corps, No. 48, consisted of three independent units, and should have been numbered separately, as they were not formed into a battalion until 1913. The Toronto public schools, listed as No. 55, at that time must have included twelve or fifteen companies.

By the spring of 1910, therefore, it is estimated that there were 72 corps with probably 90 companies and a total strength of 3,600. Thus in two years from the awakening of 1898, the previous twenty years' growth was more than doubled, the increase being chiefly in Ontario. This was evidently caused by localizing interest through providing teachers as qualified instructors, and adding a little money to make things pleasant.

Now, I am not going to weary you with details as to the growth of cadet corps during the last 15 years, but when I tell you that, as compared with 72 corps, or 90 companies, in 1900, there are now on the militia list to the end of 1914 some 587 corps, many of these being battalions with several companies each, you will realize what an advance has been made, and what a hold has been taken upon the public mind by the idea of giving our boys a military training. Although this was done despite a propaganda and strong opposition among many conscientious and well-meaning people, and was simply the instinctive working out of the national spirit in favour of building up character and physique, and at the same time incidentally providing for national self-defence, the present calamitous war proved a rude awakening to the grim necessity of the thing.

Personally I never thought of war in connection with cadet work. I tried to keep my boys from thinking of it. Last June, one month before the outbreak of war, as I stood on the tented field

with the lads at Niagara, it never entered my mind to think of it as anything but play and training. Many of us, I am sure, who have been connected with this work for years little dreamed that many of the lads we were drilling would to-day be on the firing line, and some of them occupying soldiers' graves in the soil of Belgium or France.

Everyone realizes now, even the pacifists, what a beneficent thing for Canada was the moderate military training given, and the military enthusiasm engendered by the cadet work. Where would have been the thousands of trained men offered by Canada for the defence of the Empire, and how would they have been officered and drilled in so short a time had it not been for the amount of military knowledge and enthusiasm stored up largely as a result of the cadet movement? Personally I know that the back-bone of the University Officers' Training Corps was furnished, so far as the non-commissioned officers were concerned, by the cadet corps of our schools. In the absence of a sufficient staff of professional instructors, the work of officering and drilling this corps was made possible, and even easy, by the presence of former cadets.

Now, I said I was not going to weary you with details as to the growth of cadet corps, but I believe a few tabulated figures covering the last four or five years will be of interest.

By December, 1910, 265 corps had been formed, including

78 in Quebec,
95 in Ontario,
44 in the Western Provinces,
48 in the Maritime Provinces.

But as most of the corps in Ontario consisted of single companies, while the majority in Quebec were battalions with 4 or 5 companies each, it is difficult to compare Ontario and Quebec at this stage. Roughly speaking, one would put the number of companies for

Quebec at 300, or @ 40 per co'y, total strength of.....	12,000
Ontario at 125, or @ 40 per co'y, total strength of	5,000
West and East 100 companies, total strength of	4,000
Total 525 companies, total strength of	21,000

In 1911,

Quebec organized	4	corps	with	26	companies,	total	strength	1,040
Ontario	11	“	“	16	“	“	“	640
West	9	“	“	16	“	“	“	640
East	18	“	“	19	“	“	“	760
	—			—				—
Total	42			77				3,080

In 1910 and 1911 the Maritime Provinces did the most recruiting in their history, adding 30 corps with 34 companies. This was undoubtedly due to the prompt and enthusiastic introduction of the Stratheona system into Nova Scotia.

By the end of 1911 Canada had 307 cadet corps with 602 companies, or total strength of 24,000.

1912, 1913, 1914.

Now we come to another awakening in the development of cadet work in the year 1912. Early in that year the present Minister of Militia, Major General the Hon. Sam. Hughes, as a proof of his sincerity in announcing the intention of the new government to stress cadet work, and thus carry further the good work begun by Sir Frederick Borden, appointed eleven cadet organizers and inspectors, who should make it their business to stimulate the formation of new corps, and regulate those already in existence. Physical training for both boys and girls and signalling were also to be encouraged by providing a staff of competent instructors to train teachers. The effect is seen in the following figures:—

1912, new corps—

Quebec,	13	corps,	33	companies,	total	strength.....	1,320
Ontario,	17	“	41	“	“	“	1,640
West,	18	“	75	“	“	“	3,000
East,	7	“	7	“	“	“	280
	—		—				—
Total	55		156				6,240

1913, new corps—

Quebec,	33	corps,	97	companies,	total strength.....	3,880
Ontario,	47	“	63	“	“	2,520
West,	48	“	109	“	“	4,360
East,	6	“	6	“	“	240
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Total	134		275			11,000

1914, new corps—

Quebec,	15	corps,	41	companies,	total strength.....	1,640
Ontario,	66	“	91	“	“	3,640
West,	66	“	73	“	“	2,920
East,	10	“	10	“	“	400
<hr/>						
Total	157		215			8,600

Total increase for the last three years—

Quebec,	61	corps,	171	companies,	total strength.....	6,840
Ontario,	130	“	195	“	“	7,800
West,	132	“	257	“	“	10,280
East,	23	“	23	“	“	920
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Total	346		628			25,840

CADET FORCE DOUBLED IN THE LAST THREE YEARS.

It has been seen that by the end of 1911 Canada had approximately 300 corps with 600 companies, or total strength of 24,000.

Allowing for some that have dropped out, there are now quite 600 corps, with probably 1,200 companies, or total strength of 50,000, a force larger than the establishment of the active militia.

In the Toronto district, of which Major R. K. Barker is the organizer and inspector, there are 11,000 cadets, a number larger than that of the militia of the district.

The largest cadet corps in Canada is that of the Toronto public schools, consisting of six battalions, or 53 companies, approximate strength 3,000. The growth of this remarkable organization is due to the enthusiasm of the late Chief Inspector of Schools, Col. James L. Hughes, brother of the Minister of Militia.

The Toronto collegiate institutes have just organized a regiment of eleven companies formed into two battalions with a strength of 900.

Next to the Toronto public schools come those of Winnipeg with 41 companies. Calgary stands next with 34 companies. Montreal corps, if consolidated, would rival Toronto in point of numbers.

This marks the advance in figures. Other developments of recent years are as follows:—

1. In 1898 the only uniform that school boards were required and authorized to provide consisted of military caps, with plain clothes or tunics and trousers provided by the boys themselves. In 1909 the Dominion Government undertook to provide caps or hats, and the Provincial Government of Ontario made it legal for boards to purchase uniforms out of school taxes.

2. In 1912 the Dominion Government undertook to recoup boards for outlay on uniforms by making a grant of \$1 per uniform for every cadet on parade at inspection. This means in most cases paying back the original outlay without interest in ten annual instalments.

3. Whereas in former years teachers qualifying as cadet instructors gave the time spent in attendance at classes gratis, even paying their own expenses, they now receive a per diem allowance of \$2.

Indeed, the loss of the cadet instructor under present conditions is so much more inviting financially than in pioneer days that some of the older heads have been heard to express the fear that a mercenary spirit is creeping in, and that, instead of giving of their energy and enthusiasm for sheer love of the work, some spend too much of their time figuring out how much they are going to get out of it after all expenses are paid. Let us hope that this mercenary spirit will be kept in check. Men should not be expected to do this work at a financial loss or even gratuitously. It is well known that many are doing far more than they expect ever to be paid for. These are the men who are turning out enthusiastic cadets and patriotic well-trained citizens. If there is another class going into this work in a niggardly, grasping spirit, looking for every opportunity to claim a perquisite and grudging any more work than what will enable them to draw efficiency pay, these are the men of whom it cannot be said "the labourer is worthy of his hire." The cadet instructor should take hold of his work as an enthusiast or not at all. He should do it in very much the same spirit as the sporting enthusiast on the staff takes hold of the boys' athletics. He will be largely rewarded in the good will and love of his pupils.

4. Another forward step is this. The qualified cadet instructor is now given rank in the active militia as lieutenant, and may reach that of captain. He can thus take his place in a militia unit as an officer without further examination, and the country has a valuable asset in a reserve of potential officers.

5. One very important feature in the history of the cadet movement is the uniformity and unanimity with which the political parties have supported the idea. Indeed, after each new accession to power, it is noticeable that the incoming government has tried to outdo its predecessor in this direction, while it has been generously supported in this by the opposition. It was after the great national policy victory of Sir John A. Macdonald, in 1878, that Sir Adolphe Caron, his Minister of Militia, gave the first impulse. The 1898 revival already referred to followed Sir Wilfrid Laurier's return to power in 1896, and his Minister of Militia, Sir Frederick Borden, was one of the best friends the cadet cause ever had. It was he who instituted the practice of sending boys to the Empire day competition in London, England, commonly known as the Boys' Bisley. This was the means of adding zest and importance to the work throughout Canada, and proved a wonderful stimulus to rifle shooting, as shown by the spectacular success of the Calgary cadets in the last two years.

Along comes then our indefatigable and genial Minister of Militia, Major General, the Hon. Sam Hughes, whose contribution to progress has been threefold:—

1. He instituted summer camps for cadets, which, if properly utilized and kept under wise control, must redound to the manliness, discipline and vigour of the rising generation.

2. He provided a much needed oversight and stimulus for cadet work in the appointment of eleven cadet organizers and inspectors.

3. He added the stimulus of the \$1 per cadet allowance to school boards for their outlay on uniforms.

The introduction of the Stratheona award into the various provinces has been a potent factor in advancing the movement.

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION

HOME WORK IN MATHEMATICS.

BY JOHN H. DAVIDSON, M.A., B.PAED.

Home work presents an unsolved problem. I doubt if it can ever be solved. The data for its solution are always in a state of change not only in different schools, but from year to year and from month to month in the same school or in the same class. In my study of the question, I have found very little of definite guidance. The educational periodicals refer to it from time to time briefly in a general way. Nearly all books on school management dismiss it with brief discussion, and occasionally some one contributes a paper to the programme of a teachers' association. But in all this there is little that is definite and substantial.

Throughout my whole school experience I have felt dissatisfied with the results gained through home work in the high school. As a student, I was given each day exercises in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, in addition to work in the other subjects of study. Those of us who were in earnest found more to do than we could do well. The result was that much of our home work was done hastily and imperfectly. Usually the written exercises were not returned, and we students felt that there was scarcely an adequate return for our labour. Many of us came to regard it as an evil to be ignored when possible, and to be endured with the best grace possible when our teachers took means to enforce performance.

As an assistant teacher, my problem was to get my fair share of the pupils' time for home study. I was one of a staff of which each member urged the importance of his own subject without much thought of the others. This at once raised the question, "What is the Mathematical Teacher's proper share of the student's time for home study?"

The answer, of course, must depend on the pupil, the class, and the circumstances of the school. There is no answer that will apply to all cases. But in the average school and with the average

pupil what is a fair share of the time devoted to home work that should be given to mathematics? The majority of answers to a questionnaire including this question give one-fifth as the proper ratio. A good many of the mathematical teachers who replied claim that mathematics should receive more attention at home than any other subject, but a few with whom I agree say that the pupils should do more home study in other subjects, such as history or languages and that very little home work in mathematics is required.

As a principal, anxious for the welfare of the whole school, the question of home work appears to me from another angle. The principal is expected to see that each assistant has a fair apportionment of time, that the total amount of time required by the school in home work be enough and not too much, and that the character of the home study is suitable. How can a principal meet such requirements? Homes are so different, pupils are so various in ability, in tastes, and in habits of industry, and the assignments of teachers are so many sided in method and aim that the principal's position is one of peculiar difficulty. He may have reports on home work discussed at meetings of the staff, he may give instructions embodying his ideas; he may ask the pupils to report from time to time on the time they spend in study at home; he may do all these things and still fail in having any great degree of control over the character or amount of home work. I believe that as a matter of fact the majority of principals of high schools in Ontario have little to say and less to do, in formulating or carrying into execution any definite scheme in this matter.

There is still another point of view that should never be overlooked. Parents often feel that teachers assign home work without any regard for the health, training, ability, or home duties of the individual pupil. Parents in many cases look upon the school as a kind of shop or office in which the day's work is to be finished or carried over to the next day, leaving the time at home for recreation and social intercourse. Parents complain that their children are so busy with school work that there is no time for anything else. They feel that they are not consulted, and have no say or choice in the home occupations and education of those that are dearest to them. This charge is only too true. Usually there is no regular consultation between teachers and parents regarding this important matter of the home study of high school pupils.

Such are some of the interests chiefly affected in the problem of home work. It is indeed no mean problem. In a further consideration of it there are two questions which must be taken to-

gether in practice but which may be separated for discussion. They are (1) what time should be devoted by average pupils to home work in mathematics, and (2) what should be the character and aim of the work assigned?

In my own work, I have tried to answer to first question experimentally. And I give my experience with more confidence since I have learned that it agrees with that of other teachers who have been kind enough to answer my questions.

Five or six years ago, I began very cautiously (one must be cautious in such experiments) in cutting down the amount of home work in mathematics assigned to the lower school classes. To my delight, the pupils seemed to get along just as fast and just as well as before. Meeting such encouragement, I reduced still more and more the amount of home work, and in the last two years the lower school classes have had very little, almost no home work to do in those set exercises that are so often assigned to give practice or training. The result has been good. So far as I can learn my pupils are doing just as well as they did before.

Of course, my class methods have changed. Instead of worrying about undone home work, I now worry about how to save time in my classes and about how to keep every single person in the class interested and busy for the whole period. Formerly I used to take up time in explaining difficulties in the home work. This left the brighter members of the class with nothing to do but listen to explanations in which they could have little interest. Now, instead of using the class period in a recitation of what the pupils had learned at home, I develop new principles at the beginning of the period as clearly as I know how. Then the class gets to work, each pupil for himself, and I spend most of my time walking around the room. A glance shows the pupil who is in difficulty, and often a word or a question will set him on the right way. Usually the slow pupils who are in earnest will keep abreast of the others by extra work at home.

Last year I began to reduce the amount of home work in the middle and upper schools. So far the results have been satisfactory. In this connection it is only fair to state that my work has been in schools containing a large percentage of country pupils who usually take their school work very seriously. Still my experiments incline me strongly to the conclusion that the year's achievement in mathematics does not depend on the amount of time given to home work.

However, I do not wish to do away with all home work in mathematics. The parents, the pupils, and teachers of our schools are not yet ready for that. But I do advocate a great reduction in the amount, and a change of aim with a corresponding change in the character of the home work required.

What then should be the aim in the assignment of home work in mathematics? Many teachers will agree with Fitch when he says in his "Lectures on Teaching" that nearly all home work should be "supplementary to past instruction rather than preparatory to that which is coming." Indeed, that is the practice with a large majority of Ontario mathematical teachers. The same aim is emphasized in "The Teaching of Mathematics," by J. W. A. Young, who says that the purposes of home work are:—

- (1) Drill on operations whose theory is understood;
- (2) To impress on the memory those few things which need to be memorized;
- (3) To inculcate neatness;
- (4) To give opportunity for quiet thinking.

Then he adds that "the most effective home work is that which has the character of completing the class work of the previous day, not of preparing for the next."

Now, with all due respect to such authorities is it not evident that home work in mathematics might be made to serve higher purpose than a mere grind, or drill on what has been learned last day or last week? It may be worth while to repeat known propositions, and thereby impress certain points on the memory, but these ends may be reached better in the class room under the eye of the teacher. Then, too, the class work or any work of the pupil, all his work, may and should be used to inculcate neatness. But how shall we give our pupils an "opportunity for quiet thinking?" And having provided the opportunity how can we contrive that it will be used? No person can do "quiet thinking" unless he knows how to study, i.e., how to think. In my opinion carefully selected home work in mathematics should provide both the opportunity and the subject for quiet thinking. Here, then, is the highest aim of home work—to lead the pupil into good methods of study.

This purpose is admirably served by mathematics. In this subject is required clear thinking, accuracy in method and operation, a strict adherence to truth, and persistent diligence in concentration. Mathematics, more than any other subject, demands in its

development a complete knowledge of its elements and skill in their application. In short, the right study of mathematics gives a good training in the best methods of study. If so, the function of the teacher of mathematics is one of very great importance. It is his peculiar privilege to teach how to study, and he can often do this best by a wise choice of home work.

A wise choice! "Aye there's the rub." Still, if one considers the aim stated above, it is evident that the out-of-school exercise must satisfy the conditions required by good methods of study. Hence, a wise selection of home work will possess the following characteristics:—*

1. It will present a definite end in the present. A present end adds interest, and this is the key to the whole situation. Interest gives work the spontaneity of play. It makes effort joyous and leads to self-activity.

2. It will require the pupil to work for himself. He must exert himself vigorously to realize a definite end. Through self-activity comes skill, knowledge and self-reliance, and therefore self-control. This is the final test of successful work either in school or in after life.

3. It will require a selection of material for the solution of the problem, also a testing of the validity of this information or material. Thus it will develop reflection, thinking, abstracting, organizing, forming judgments, holding opinions and hence, holding views honestly with oneself.

4. It will require a presentation of the result in words, in deeds, in the making of a toy or an article for use, and in a respect for the workman through his workmanship.

In a word, a well chosen series of home work questions in mathematics should provide a means of developing initiative and individuality and always give room for originality of treatment.

The following is a list of propositions that have been hastily put together. Every teacher here will at once be able to extend the list or improve those here mentioned. Some of them I have used, while others are such that I think they might be used, with good effect:—

1. Have the class make measurements of a fence and get the cost.

* See "The Teacher and the School," by C. P. Colgrove; also "How to Study," by F. M. McMurry.

2. Get the boys to build a fence (on paper) of given kind, making their own measurements, drawings, and calculations of cost.
3. Work out a logical discussion in review of (say) addition and subtraction of fractions.
4. Find the area of the surface of a barrel.
5. Find the distance from a given point to an inaccessible point.
6. Find the wages of a boy who begins work at a cent a day, but whose wages increase in geometrical ratio.
7. Write a paper on the advantages or disadvantages of the metric system.
8. How many ancestors did you have in the time of Alfred the Great?
9. Give as many examples of symmetry as you can find in nature.
10. How many right angles can you find in this room?
11. Criticize, "a straight line is the shortest distance between two points."
12. Write a history of the Pythagorean theorem.
13. Write a history of the algebraic signs of operation.
14. Proof that $1=2$, or that any number is equal to any other.
15. What is the history of Logarithms?
16. Given a set of surveying instruments, find the area of an irregular piece of ground.

Such a list might be extended indefinitely. It would contain most of the topics that are discussed in students' mathematical clubs. Why not have each class a mathematical club? Quite a number of teachers tell me that they have had good results in asking their students to construct their own examples in illustration of mathematical propositions that were studied in class. Last year my upper school class had a week's fun making up series for each other to sum, and in the week they reviewed in that way very thoroughly the summation of series in so far as it came in their work. By all means, let us avoid the wearisome treadmill drudgery of the set exercises from the text book. These drill exercise may be worked in class under the stimulus of teacher and companions. Home work should avoid such task work as "Do the next ten examples." It should be such as will provide an interest for its own sake. It should encourage the pupil to approach his work with the same zest, and with the same earnestness and sincerity of effort as that with which he enters a game of baseball. It should keep alive in him the spirit of research and the God-given curiosity that is the birthright of every youth. It should invest

mathematics with a human interest and make him feel that mathematics is a living subject with a vital interest that is worthy of his best efforts. Thus he will enjoy real study, and his teacher will be able to employ the dynamic and compelling power of hard work more fully in things of higher educative value.

Thus the assignment of home work is a very serious business. It must be very carefully considered. An exercise that is going to meet these requirements cannot be given haphazard or on the spur of the moment. The determination of the plan and purpose of an exercise in good methods of study should be an important part of the preparation of every honest teacher. It is important to remember that the desired result is a matter of slow growth, and so ample time, and then more time, will be needed by the student for the consideration of such exercises. Then, too, it will not be enough if we merely assign certain problems or projects for our pupils' study. It is very necessary to make sure that they have all needed information or that they know where to find it. This last is a very important phase of assigning home work. We will defeat our purpose if we give them questions to answer or discuss that are beyond their reach and leave them to flounder helplessly without light or guidance.

Moreover, the teacher's work is not complete when the work is assigned, and due precaution taken to see that the information needed is within the pupil's reach. The pupil's completed work must be inspected. Every pupil must be held responsible and should feel the responsibility that lies on him to do his best. He should feel that his teacher will accept nothing less than his best.

But if there is one thing more than another that is drudgery, it is the reading of school exercises. Especially is this true when the object of the reading is to see that a given number of examples have been done according to a rule. But if the reading be done in order to see how the individuals of our classes have approached and seized certain topics or problems which they have been considering for a week, or two weeks, perhaps, the outlook is changed and school exercises become of absorbing interest. It is truly delightful to find once in a while a new fresh way of attacking a problem, or an original way of stating the implications of a subject. It is most interesting to watch through the home work the unfolding and developing powers of our pupils, and to see them as energetic living personalities. Reading exercises in this spirit is as full of interest as following the events and players in the local hockey team.

In order to follow the members of our classes in this way it will be necessary to keep a record of each one. The record should show successes as well as failures. Most teachers, I assume, keep a record of individual pupils in which may be found mentioned important happenings. But might I suggest a record of each student's home work in the form of a file of cards, one for each pupil, and arranged in alphabetical order. A card, say, 3" by 4" might at the end of the year contain an account of the outstanding features of a pupil's work for a year.

Now the preparation and choice of home work in mathematics, its assignment, and the recording of results will demand careful thought on the part of the teacher. It will take up a great deal of his time. But if he is relieved from the burden of daily inspection of mechanical exercises he will have the time. Besides, it will be time given to one of the most interesting features of teaching, viz., the oversight and insight into the developing powers of his pupils as individuals. It will develop a unity of interest between himself and his class. Home work will cease to be the bugbear of the pupils, and the burden of the teacher. He will cease to fill the role of taskmaster, and his pupils will learn to look upon him as their best friend, and find in him a leader and guide to the glorious heritage of mathematical truth. Any approach to such a relation, to such a common aim, between master and pupil, will help a teacher to realize and fulfill the altruistic aspirations of one who says,

“May every soul that touches mine—
Be it the slightest contact—get therefrom some good,
Some little grace, one kindly thought,
One aspiration yet unfelt, one bit of courage
For the darkening sky, one gleam of faith
To brave the thickening ills of life,
One glimpse of brighter skies beyond the gathering mist,
To make this life worth while,
And Heaven a surer heritage.”

ENGLISH HISTORY SECTION

THE POETRY OF TENNYSON.

BY J. F. MACDONALD, M.A., KINGSTON.

In 1872 Tennyson wrote to a Dr. W. C. Bennet as follows:

“My Dear Mr. Bennet,—Thanks for your flattering poem. I could wish that I had something of what Master Swinburne calls the ‘Divine arrogance of genius,’ that I might take it into my system and rejoice abundantly; but as Marvell says:

‘At my back I always hear
Time’s winged chariot hurrying near;
And yonder all before us lie
Deserts of vast eternity,’

where most of us will be left and swallowed up. Nevertheless true thanks.”

To the last Tennyson took the same modest view of his own fame—it was likely to fluctuate and eventually fade. There is no such fear, however, in the flattering reminiscences sent to Hallam, Lord Tennyson, for his Memoir published in 1897. The Earl of Selborne, Jowett, Froude, Tyndall, Theodore Watts-Dunton, Frederic Myers, F. T. Palgrave, the Duke of Argyll—are all quite sure that the poetry of Tennyson will live. Further, they are sure that his place will be among the very greatest. “His work,” writes F. T. Palgrave, “will probably be found to lie somewhere between that of Virgil and Shakespeare, having its portion, if I may venture on the phrase in the inspiration of both.” And the Duke of Argyll expresses the opinion that “In Memoriam” can never die “until our existing world has passed away.” No doubt we must make some allowance for the circumstances in which these reminiscences were written. “De mortuis nil nisi bonum” is a maxim that always affects men and that becomes positively binding on them in writing of a dear and honoured friend. But when all allowances have been made, the collection of reminiscences by Tennyson’s friends is a remarkable testimony to his reputation at the time of his death.

Of course there were critics who rated Tennyson's work very much below the rank assigned it by Palgrave and Argyll. Matthew Arnold, for instance, writing to his mother, in 1869, says of his own poetry, "It might be fairly urged that I have less poetical sentiment than Tennyson, and less intellectual vigour and abundance than Browning; yet because I have perhaps more of a fusion of the two than either of them, and have more regularly applied that fusion to the main line of modern development, I am likely enough to have my turn, as they have had theirs." The criticism implied here, that Tennyson is somewhat lacking in intellectual vigour and abundance, has been repeated and has gathered force since Arnold first voiced it. In a letter dated December 27 of the same year as Arnold's, George Meredith writes, "I return Ruskin's letter, a characteristic one.—What he says of Tennyson I too thought in my boy's days, that is before I began to think. Tennyson has many spiritual indications, but no philosophy, and philosophy is the palace of thought." A week later he writes to John Morley, then editor of the *Fortnightly Review*, "I should have written to ask leave to review Tennyson's *Arthurian Cycles*; but I could not summon heart even to get the opening for speaking my mind on it—I can hardly say I think he deserves well of us; he is a real singer, and he sings this mild fluency to this great length. Malory's *Morte Arthur* is preferable. Fancy one affecting the great poet and giving himself up (in our days! he must have lost the key of them) to such dandiacal fluting. Yet there was stuff here for a poet of genius to animate the figures and make them reflect us, and on us. I read the successive mannered lines with pain—yards of linen-drapery for the delight of ladies who would be in the fashion. The praises of the book shut me away from my fellows. To be sure there's the magnificent *Lucretius*." The general agreement of reviewers with this judgment of Meredith's when it came to the ears of the literary public in 1912, shows that, among professional critics at least, the *Idylls of the King* are, as Meredith elsewhere puts it, already *passé*. The present attitude towards them is that of the critic who last year reviewed in the *Times* a new edition of Tennyson's poems under the heading "*The Muse in Crinoline*." Nor are the *Idylls of the King* the only part of Tennyson's poetry that has shrunk in popular estimation. Indeed one cannot but feel that there is a tendency nowadays to speak slightly, or patronizingly, or even at times contemptuously of Tennyson's claims to the title of great poet.

The reasons for this change in estimate are not far to seek. Browning has supplanted his friend in literary, and especially in pseudo-literary circles. He has all the qualities that attract the select literary club strenuously bent on culture. He is hard to read, he is caviare to the general, he is capable of many interpretations. Further, his claims have been so zealously pushed by his devotees that there is no doubt he is now the fashionable poet. It is true there are some signs which indicate that Meredith is likely to rival or even to oust him, but as yet it is only the more esoteric groups that affect Meredith. I have not yet heard of Ladies' Clubs studying his sonnet sequence, "Modern Love." That will no doubt come. In the second place there is a marked change in the time spirit. An age that enjoys, even if it does not always accept, the teaching and criticism of Chesterton and Shaw, is apt to find Tennyson somewhat insipid. The realism of Bennet and Galsworthy and Masfield is remote from the spiritual mysticism of the Holy Grail. Think of the difference between two persons who really enjoy reading, one, let us say, "Lancelot and Elaine," and the other "The Widow in By Street." Yet there is something of this difference between the two ages, for each poem is a real voice of its own time. Fancy reading "The Widow in By Street" to a mid-Victorian audience. What has caused this change in the whole spirit of the age it is no part of my purpose to discuss at present. It is enough to point out the fact.

A still more striking change in our age is its different attitude towards religion and the problems of religion. We can recall the whole ferment and upheaval of the 40's in the poems of Arnold and Clough on the one hand, and of Tennyson and Browning on the other. In the former two we get all the bitterness, the melancholy, the poignant sorrow at the loss of faith, all the morbid questionings and vague yearnings that beset the finer and more sensitive spirits of the time; in Browning we get the militant, at times even the truculent assertion of triumphant faith, in Tennyson, the quieter, more persuasive, more philosophic argument for the larger hope. In the realm of religious poetry I am not sure but Clough and Arnold have the better chance of surviving. Explanations and arguments change from age to age, but the questionings and the yearning abide. He would be a bold man who would say to-day with Argyll, "In Memoriam" can never die "until our existing world has passed away."

One must distinguish at this point between popular and critical opinion. In the long run critical opinion, if it be quite decided and well grounded, has a way of establishing itself, and will still more easily and surely establish itself in the future through our democratic and highly unified school systems with their prescribed courses of reading. The critics dominate the makers of curricula, and the curricula form the opinions and taste of each generation. Hence, if in deference to the critics, the amount of Tennyson's poetry be reduced in the school requirements for English, his reputation will decline among the people. As yet, however, there is no question that he is our most popular poet. In an inquiry conducted by a widely circulated weekly paper some two or three years ago, fully 80 per cent. of the votes cast were for Tennyson—he was first and the rest nowhere.

Which is likely to prevail, the present popular favour or the growing academic neglect?—that is the question I should like you to consider for a little while this morning.

We may assume, with Milton, that if poetry is really great, the world will not willingly let it die. But unfortunately there is no agreement as to the exact characteristics of great poetry. We have Romantic critics, and impressionistic critics, and classical critics seated at the three angles of a triangle, each group deriding the statements of the other two. And yet there is a common ground on which all at least profess to agree.

The terms used by Milton in his famous description of poetry—simple, sensuous, passionate—are generally accepted as fundamental, though critics quarrel over their precise meaning and their application to specific poems. Without stopping to give an exact definition of each of these terms, let us try to use them as guides for our inquiry.

Is the poetry of Tennyson simple? With Browning's crabbed shorthand sentences, strange words, and erudite allusions in mind, we are prone to answer "Yes" at once. No doubt Tennyson is not hard to read. But this does not quite dispose of the question. We think of Wordsworth's Michael, or his group of Lucy poems, and a doubt arises. Certainly the criticism that Tennyson lacked simplicity was a common one in the 30's. The "double-shotted" adjectives, the cloying alliteration and general ornateness of the earlier poems came in for severe criticism; criticism that Tennyson always extremely sensitive to blame, took deeply to heart, as the

volume of 1842 showed. And yet almost to the last he had a fancy for euphuisms and mild conceits. In the *Ulysses* we read that

“All experience is an arch, where through
Gleams that untravelled world, whose margin fades
Forever and forever, when I move.”

Just try to see this picture and you will realize the force of Arnold's comment on the lines, “Homer would certainly have said of them, ‘It is to consider too curiously to consider so.’” “In the *Morte D'Arthur*, too, we are told that Arthur's cuisses were “dashed with drops of onset,” and that his long locks were “mixt with the knightly growth that fringed his lips.” One would hunt long before he would find a worse instance of bad taste and inflated diction. Even Homer, we may be reminded, nods at times. Tennyson, however, does worse than nod; he stays awake and constructs epigrams. It is a poor defence to say that many of these have been much admired. Of course they have—by people unable to distinguish between what is true and what is false in art. Consider, for example, the glittering antithesis of the celebrated lines on *Launcelot*,

“His honour rooted in dishonour stood,
And faith unfaithful kept him falsely true.”

Really, they might serve as a test for good taste in poetry.

We must admit, I think, that Tennyson has not the divine simplicity of Homer; he has nothing that approaches the calmness, the imaginative sweep of the old Greek's comparisons—“As is the life of the leaves, so are the generations of men.” Nor has he the “sheer, bare, penetrating power” of Wordsworth, or even the unadorned simplicity that is the charm of Housman's series of little poems, “A Shropshire Lad.” Yet when this is admitted to the full, one has only to call to mind “The Lady of Shallot,” the lyrics scattered through the “*Princess*,” “Break, Break, Break,” or “Crossing the Bar” to realize that the popular judgment is right in declaring that Tennyson's best poetry is essentially simple.

No one has ever questioned its sensuousness. On the contrary, it was the commonest criticism passed on the volume of 1830, and even on that of 1833, that the poetry was too sensuous, too heavily loaded with imagery. The glittering splendour and magnificence of the “*Recollections of the Arabian Nights*” offended the taste of a generation nurtured on Coleridge and Wordsworth and Byron—

Keats and Shelley were as yet hardly known outside a narrow circle; and even Keats is not more pictorial than Tennyson. Indeed, the pictorial element is so marked in Tennyson's poetry that it demands more than mere passing mention. In a letter to Dawson, of Montreal, who had just published a "Study of the Princess" Tennyson wrote in 1847, "There was a period when, as an artist, Turner, for instance, takes rough sketches of landskip, etc., in order to work them eventually into some great picture, so I was in the habit of chronieling, in four or five words or more, whatever might strike me as picturesque in Nature. I never put these down, and many and many a line has gone away on the north wind, but some remain, e.g.,

A full sea glazed with muffled moonlight.

Suggestion

The sea one night at Torquay, when Torquay was the most lovely sea village in England, tho' now a smoky town. The sky was covered with thin vapour, and the moon behind it.

A great black cloud
Drags inward from the deep.

Suggestion

A coming storm seen from the top of Snowdon

In the "Idylls of the King,"
With all
Its stormy crests that smite against the skies.

Suggestion

A storm which came upon us in the middle of the North Sea. (Vol. 1, 257.) Evidently a good many of these little pictures did not go away on the north wind but were stored away in Tennyson's note-book to be used later in a poem. Here, for instance, is a handful sketched during tours in Cornwall, Ireland, and the Isle of Wight. Many of you will remember how they are used in the "Idylls" and "The Brook."

(Cornwall, The open sea.) Two great ships
That draw together in a calm.
(I. of Wight.)
As those that lie on happy shores and see
Through the near blossom slip the distant sail.

(Park House) Before the leaf
 When all the trees stand in a mist of green.
 (Bray Head)
 O friend, the great deeps of Eternity
 Roar only round the wasting cliffs of time.
 (The river Shannon, on the rapids)
 Ledges of battling water. (Vol. 1, p. 465.)

Again and again in the "Memoir" we have references to this habit of describing with the eye on the object, putting away the description, and setting it deftly into the mosaic-work of a poem, maybe years after it was sketched.

One thinks at once of the radically different method of Wordsworth, who would brood alone among his mountains until he had caught the very spirit of the place, and then would use only one or two details, not so much to describe as to suggest the scene. In "Fidelity," for instance, we are told,

There sometimes doth a leaping fish
 Send through the tarn a lonely cheer;
 The crags repeat the raven's croak,
 In symphony austere.

How these two details of the leaping fish and the raven's croak that echoes in the stillness, call up the scene to anyone who has been in a lonely glen among the rugged hills.

About a stone-cast from the wall
 A sluice with blackened waters slept,
 And o'er it many, round and small,
 The cluster'd marish-mosses crept.
 Hard by a poplar shook alway,
 All silver-green with gnarled bark;
 For leagues no other tree did mark
 The level waste, the rounding gray.
 She only said, "My life is dreary,
 He cometh not," she said;
 She said, "I am aweary, aweary,
 I would that I were dead!"

How the accumulation of details brings the desolate scene before us. The methods of description are radically different, and they are typical of the two men, one the most spiritual and suggestive

in his treatment of nature, the other the most minutely pictorial of all our English poets.

Sensuous as the poetry of Tennyson is in its appeal to the eye, yes, and to the senses of touch and taste and smell, its greatest sensuous appeal is undoubtedly to the ear. He had everything that goes to the making of the artist in the use of words—adequate acquaintance with every great master of verse, the most sensitive and fastidious ear in England, and the creative power of genius.

A few examples will illustrate his nicety of ear. His son writes: He felt what Cowper calls the “musical finesse” of Pope, and admired single lines and couplets very much, but he found the “regular da da, da da” of his heroic metre monotonous. He quoted, “What dire offence from amorous causes springs.” “*Amrus causiz springs,*” horrible! I would sooner die than write such a line! Archbishop Trench (not then archbishop) was the only critic who said of my first volume, “What a singular absence of the “s”!” (Vol. 2, p. 286.) On another occasion Warren repeated to him some undergraduate lines about Jowett:

“What I know not is not knowledge:
I am the master of this college.”

“Very unfair,” said Tennyson. “Jowett never set up to be omniscient. Jowett got his pronounciation of ‘knowledge’ from me (long o). ‘Free will, fore knowledge absolute.’ Fore knolledge would be horrible there.” (Vol. 2, p. 400.) He once confessed to his son and Browning that he believed he knew the quantity of every word in the English language except perhaps “scissors.” “We asked him,” his son writes, “to make a Sapphic stanza in quantity, with the Greek cadence. He gave us this:

Faded every violet, all the roses;
Gone the glorious promise; and the victim
Broken in this anger of Aphrodite,
Yields to the victor. (Vol. 2, p. 231.)

To quote again from the “Memoir”:—“When he was reading ‘*Enoch Arden*,’ he told Miss L. to listen to the sound of the sea in the line

The League-long roller thundering on the reef,
and to mark Miriam Lane’s chatter in
He ceased and Miriam Lane
Made such a voluble answer, promising all.” (Vol. 2, p. 409.)

He once remarked to a friend speaking of his "Foresters," "You will notice I said Robin and Richard, not Richard and Robin. That would be unpleasant." Learning that Enid was pronounced with the "e" short, he changed in the second edition of the *Idyll* the expression "wedded Enid" to "married Enid."

Passage after passage comes crowding into mind in which sheer delight in sound is so obvious that it seems the chief reason for the lines being written.

Myriads of rivulets hurrying through the lawn,
The moan of doves in immemorial elms,
And murmuring of innumerable bees.

Katie walks

By the long wash of Australasian seas.

Listen to the tinkling "k's" and light dancing vowels in the milking song from "Queen Mary."

Robin came behind me,
Kissed me well I vow;
Cuff him could I? with my hands
Milking the cow?
Swallows fly again,
Cuckoos cry again,
And you came and kissed me milking the cow.

Now contrast with this the liquid "l's" and broad vowels of the plaintive little lute song from the same play,

Love will hover round the flowers when they first awaken;
Love will fly the fallen leaf, and not be overtaken;
Low, my lute! oh low, my lute! we fade and are forsaken—
Low, dear lute, low!

Sometimes even in his blank verse Tennyson deliberately plays on sounds. Note, for instance, the sudden and striking change from the hard dentals and gutturals and narrow vowels to the broad open vowels and liquids in the famous passage from *Morte D'Arthur*.

Dry clash'd his harness in the icy caves
And barren chasms, and all to left and right
The bare black cliff clang'd round him, as he based
His feet on juts of slippery crag that rang

Sharp-smitten with the dint of armed heels—
 And on a sudden, lo! the level lake,
 And the long glories of the winter moon.

The art is here so close to artifice that it almost offends us. But in countless passages the poet has had the consummate art which conceals art. Think of the languid dreamy music of "The Lotos-Eaters," the elfin echoes of the "Bugle Song," the nervous energy of "Ulysses," the pensive grace of the lines to Virgil, the rollicking swing of "The Northern Farmer," the light tripping movement of "Dainty little maiden, whither would you wander?" recall, I say, the music of these verses and you realize that Tennyson was master of every note in the Lydian mood, and had even deep chest tones of the graver Dorian music.

If we agree then, that Tennyson's best poetry is essentially simple and superbly sensuous, can we agree on the question of whether or not it is passionate? As a necessary first step let us try to define the word "passionate." Most critics would say, I think, that, as used by Milton, it includes both thought and feeling. At any rate, if it doesn't, we must add some fourth term to complete a reasonable definition of poetry; a reasonable definition, I say, for Poe's declaration that thought has nothing to do with poetry, is so extreme as to carry with it its own rebuttal. On his theory "The Raven" might have some claim to be considered what he honestly believed it—the greatest poem ever written. On the other hand we cannot accept Ruskin's dictum that a work of art is great exactly in proportion to the greatness of the ideas it expresses. It must have both body and soul, both thought and emotion. When both are present in such perfect balance that neither overweighs the other, the poetry is "passionate" in Milton's sense of the word.

Let us see whether Tennyson's poetry satisfies this third requirement. No one, I imagine, would deny that it does in such poems as "Break, Break, Break" or "Crossing the Bar." But how much of his poetry has the same perfect fusion of thought and feeling? What are we to say, for instance, of his much-praised patriotic poems? Two stanzas of "You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease" express almost perfectly the English ideal of liberty:

It is the land that freemen till,
 That sober-suited Freedom chose,
 That land, where girt with friends or foes

A man may speak the thing he will;
 A land of settled government,
 A land of just and old renown,
 Where Freedom slowly broadens down
 From precedent to precedent.

There is here both depth of thought and strength of feeling. But who remembers, or cares to remember, the rest of the poem? "Love thou thy land" opens at a high level but there is a distinct lowering after the first stanza. What follows is a dignified and impressive statement of the political faith held by that conservative group in the Liberal party to which Tennyson belonged; but would anyone have the hardihood to claim for it the great and rare merit of being impassioned poetry? Even the last and best of the well-known three is not wholly satisfying. "Of old sat Freedom on the heights" is more rhythmical, it is true, and less didactic than "You ask me, why, tho' ill at ease" or than "Love thou thy land," and the emotion is not deadened in it, as it is in them, by the political argument.

Grave mother of majestic works,
 From her isle-altar gazing down,
 Who, God-like, grasps the triple forks,
 And, King-like, wears the crown:

Her open eyes desire the truth.
 The wisdom of a thousand years
 Is in them. May perpetual youth
 Keep dry their light from tears.

"The lyrical cry," to use Arnold's expression, raises these stanzas almost to the level of "the grand style"; almost, but not quite. Put beside them Wordsworth's "Thought of a Briton on the subjugation of Switzerland":

Two voices are there; one is of the sea,
 One of the mountains; each a mighty voice:
 In both from age to age thou didst rejoice,
 They were thy chosen music, Liberty.

Do we not feel in these lines a larger breath and a deeper note than in Tennyson's poetry of patriotism? There is, however, one little known poem that has at least the vigour that indignation gives. "The Third of February, 1852," is a remonstrance against

certain speeches in the House of Lords rebuking the English press for its outspoken criticism of the French government.

We love not this French God, the child of Hell,
Wild War, who breaks the converse of the wise;
But though we love kind Peace so well,
We dare not ev'n by silence sanction lies.
It might be safe our censures to withdraw;
And yet, my Lords, not well: there is a higher law.

If you be fearful, then must we be bold.
Our Britain cannot salve a tyrant o'er.
Better the waste Atlantic roll'd
On her and us and ours for evermore.
What! have we fought for freedom from our prime,
At last to dodge and palter with a public crime?

Shall we fear *him*? Our own we never feared.
From our first Charles by force we wrung our claims.
Prick'd by the Papal spur we rear'd,
We flung the burthen of the second James.
I say we *never* feared! and as for these,
We broke them on the land, we drove them on the seas.

There can be no question of the sincerity of this outburst; and sincerity is implied in Milton's word "passionate." The patriotism which is the last refuge of a scoundrel or the first resort of a politician, does not express itself in poetry.

It is only in his best poetry, however, that Tennyson is truly passionate, and his best poetry is not found among his patriotic verse. As I have already hinted, he is at his highest in simple lyrics like "Break, Break, Break" and "Crossing the Bar" or the interlude songs in the "Princess," each of which voices a single primary emotion—the sheltering love of mother for child, the iron grief of the warrior's wife, the reluctance of the maiden yielding at last to love. Everyone knows these poems, but unfortunately few readers are equally familiar with the series of dramatic monologues that make up Tennyson's own favorite poem, "Maud." The widespread study of Browning has at least helped towards a better understanding of this peculiar type of poetry with the result that "Maud" is growing in popularity. It will continue to grow. As yet, however, the majority of readers are

familiar only with the lyric "Come into the garden, Maud," and familiar with it, unfortunately, only as sung by some tenor robusto in a voice that makes certain of the invitation reaching Maud. Yet there are even finer things in the poem than this lyric, perfectly as it expresses the trembling ecstasy of the expectant lover. There is, for instance, the beautiful little stanza of regret,

Alas for her that met me,
That heard me softly call,
Came glimmering through the laurels
At the quiet evenfall,
In the garden by the turrets
Of the old manorial hall.

There is, too, that quatrain which for the poignancy of its pathos is hardly to be matched outside the songs of Burns, and which is "passionate" with a depth of feeling not equalled elsewhere in the poetry of Tennyson himself:

O that 'twere possible
After long grief and pain
To find the arms of my true love
Round me once again.

The muse was not in crinoline when she inspired verse like that.

At this point some one might not unreasonably object that all I have said goes only to show that Tennyson wrote at least a few great poems. But I have at any rate tried to do something more, namely, to test by a generally accepted standard the poetry of a man who is now long enough dead to make such an estimate possible and perhaps useful. The same critic might go on to object that I have not even mentioned the "In Memoriam," the poem which, in Argyll's opinion, "can never die until our existing world has passed away." Of course I could reply with justice that no one can reasonably be expected to discuss every poem of Tennyson's in a brief paper. That answer would be hardly fair. The "In Memoriam" bulks too large to be passed over in silence. Moreover, it has, at least until recently, been very generally regarded as Tennyson's greatest work and is still given that place by many readers, especially by those who have passed middle life.

It is not hard to account for the popularity of "In Memoriam." It is primarily a religious poem, and English taste has always had a curious liking for poetry that is pious even if it be not very

poetical. Now, Tennyson's elegy is both poetical and pious. Froude in his history of Carlyle's life in London has an interesting passage which shows us how Tennyson was regarded by his contemporaries as the champion of an honest and liberal faith. He says:

"In this condition the best and bravest of my own contemporaries determined to have done with insincerity, to find ground under their feet, to let the uncertain remain uncertain, but to learn how much and what we could honestly regard as true and believe that and live by it. Tennyson became the voice of this feeling in poetry—the group of Poems which closed with 'In Memoriam' became to many of us what the 'Christian Year' was to orthodox Churchmen. We read them, and they became part of our minds, the expression in exquisite language of the feelings which were working in ourselves."

To the earnest inquirers of our generation the "In Memoriam" is not "what the 'Christian Year' was (or still is) to orthodox Churchmen." Religious thought, even within the churches, has moved away from the position described by Tennyson in his statement to Bishop Lightfoot, "The cardinal point of Christianity is the life after Death." And so the new faith which is slowly forming still awaits its poet.

No one, however, could reasonably argue that the popularity of "In Memoriam" depended on its piety alone. It did indeed voice, as Froude has testified, that faith which could still be clung to among the wreckage of creeds. But it voiced a great deal more; it gave simple yet eloquent expression to our common morality and our common human affections. The uses of adversity, the numbing grief at loss of friend or lover, the sinking of spirit beneath the mystery of life, the perplexed gropings of faith to find out God—these are subjects that recur again and again, and they are perennially interesting. Another important element in the popularity of the poem was the attempt it made to reconcile the interests—as men thought in the 40's the warring interests—of science and religion. In many a passage the most advanced scientific ideas of the time were used with understanding and imagination to justify the ways of God to men. No other English poet has shown the same skill as Tennyson in transmuting into poetry the best scientific knowledge of his age. We must add that remarkable human powers are displayed throughout the elegy—wide knowledge, accurate observation, broad sanity of judgment, far-ranging imagination.

And yet I make bold to say that in our generation the "In Memoriam" does not appeal strongly to lovers of poetry. It has certain defects which always tended to lessen its appeal. The most obvious one is looseness of structure. The poem consists, excluding the prelude and epilogue, of 131 sections that range in length from 3 to 30 four-line stanzas. These sections were written at intervals in the years between 1834 and 1849, and have only the slenderest thread of connection. Indeed, the only obvious sign of definite structure consists in the chronology more or less clearly marked by the three Christmas-tide sections (37, 78, 104). Tennyson even thought of calling it "Fragments of an Elegy" (Vol. 1, 293), and sometimes in later years referred to it as "The Way of the Soul" (ib., 393). He evidently felt that it had not the unity of structure that its title implied. The mere length of the poem, too, is a handicap on it; its verse form is a still greater. I have read a good deal about the beauty of the stanza used by Tennyson in the "In Memoriam" and about the consummate skill with which he adapts it to every mood. All I have time to say on the point is that it soon grows wearisome. If you doubt the truth of this rather dogmatic statement, read the poem aloud for half an hour and judge for yourself.

But, says my critic, "In Memoriam" was not written to be read as a whole nor even for half an hour continuously. It is a series of separate poems connected, indeed, but still intended to be read one at a time, and these separate poems are well-nigh perfect. Many of them are but many seem over-rated. Let us look for a minute at a famous section. (No. VI.)

One writes, that "Other friends remain,"

That "Loss is common to the race"—

And vacant is the commonplace,

And vacant chaff well meant for grain.

That loss is common would not make

My own less bitter, rather more:

Too common! Never morning wore

To evening, but some heart did break.

O father, wheresoe'er thou be,

Who pledgest now thy gallant son;

A shot, ere half thy draught be done,

Hath still'd the life that beat from thee.

O mother, praying God will save
 Thy sailor,—while thy head is bow'd,
 His heavy-shotted hammock-shroud
 Drops in his vast and wandering grave.

Early in the play of "Hamlet" there is a passage curiously similar to the first stanza here. The easy-going Queen is trying to rouse Hamlet from the melancholy into which he has been plunged by the death of his father, but what she intends for consolation only serves to deepen his gloom. To be reminded that all men suffer loss is no solace; it but brings home to him how hard is the lot of man.

Q.—Do not forever with thy vailed lids
 Seek for thy noble father in the dust:
 Thou know'st 'tis common; all that lives must die,
 Passing through nature to eternity.

H.—Ay, madam, it is common.

The concentrated bitterness, the profound sadness of that reply make Tennyson's lines seem commonplace and banal. They are not nobly passionate and sensuous. And I confess to a similar feeling about the beautiful closing line, "Drops in his vast and wandering grave." It is too much like the dream of Clarence in "Richard III":

—and often did I strive
 To yield the ghost: but still the envious flood
 Kept in my soul, and would not let it forth
 To seek the empty, vast and wandering air.

—too much like it to give the impression of perfect sincerity, the sincerity which underlies all noble passion. No; even when it is read section by section, the "In Memoriam" usually fails to hold the modern reader. It fails, not because the reader is degenerate, but because in it Tennyson seldom succeeds in fusing thought and feeling into poetry that is simple, sensuous, passionate.

There are whole classes of Tennyson's poems with which there is no time to deal. There are, for instance, the English idylls, the later dramatic monologues like "Despair," the dramas, the studies in dialect, the odes, the ballads, and above all the noble group of classical poems. Of all these there can be little doubt that the classical poems have by far the best chance of surviving. It is hard to conceive of the taste of an age in which lovers of

poetry would no longer enjoy "Ulysses" and "Oenone," "Tiresias" and "Tithonus." The poems in dialect, however, are among the most interesting of those mentioned, because it is only in them that we get any clear idea of Tennyson's humour. One wishes there was more like this sketch from "The Northern Farmer":

"An' I hallus coom'd to 's chooch afoor moy Sally wur deäd,
An' 'eard 'um a bummin' awaäy loike a buzzard-clock ower my
'eäd,
An' I niver knaw'd whot a meän'd but I thowt a 'ad summut to
saäy,
An' I thowt a said what a owt to 'a said an' I coom'd awaäy."

Why Tennyson wrote so little humorous verse it is hard to say. Even in the "Memoir" of his son—a book that gives the impression of being carefully expurgated—even in it one gets hints of a robust humour and the giant strength one might reasonably expect in a man of Tennyson's physique, a "Life-guardsman spoiled by writing poetry" as Carlyle once described him; a man who could throw a big iron bar clean over a hay-stack to the amazement of a couple of farm-labourers, who assured him that "there wasn't a man in two parishes who could do the like." One feels that Tennyson's spirit was fettered by the conventionality of the Victorian period. Had he lived in the age of Elizabeth now, or even in our own freer generation, we should find in his poetry a fuller revelation of the spirit which we catch only glimpses of in occasional anecdotes. Something of brusqueness, for instance, as well as of modesty is apparent in his manner of dealing with a new acquaintance who kept assuring him that it was the greatest honour of his life to have met the great poet. The great poet shocked his admirer with a curt "Don't talk damned nonsense." (Vol. 1, p. 264.) One can see a relic of the rollicking fun for which he was noted among his friends in the story he used to tell with glee of the impression made on Carlyle by the Greek and Roman statues in the British Museum. "Neither God nor man," growled the Sage of Chelsea, "can get on without a decent jaw-bone, and not one of them has a decent jaw-bone."

Yet we should be grateful for the mass of noble poetry that remains, lyric, epic, and dramatic. The only class of verse, indeed, in which Tennyson does not excel is the sonnet, which he disliked, and strange to say, the epigram after the Greek model. He wrote,

for instance, only a few epitaphs, and of these only one, that on Sir John Franklin, can be considered successful:

Not here! the white North has thy bones; and thou,
Heroic sailor soul,
Art passing on thy happier voyage now
Toward no earthly pole.

Even this, when put beside the chiselled perfection of Arnold's lines on the body of an unknown stranger washed ashore, seems diffuse and laboured:

Ask not my name, O friend.
That Being only, which hath known each man
From the beginning, can
Remember each unto the end.

It is rare to find in Tennyson the austere simplicity of Greek art.

And now let me summarize very briefly what I have been trying to say about the present position of Tennyson's poetry and its probable rank in the future. The dramas have already gone, successful and profitable as some of them were. "Becket," for example, ran over a hundred nights to crowded houses. The *Idylls of the King*, as a whole, is almost gone, though the *Morte D'Arthur* still has for us all something of its old glamour. There are some, too, who are charmed by the mysticism of the Holy Grail, by the spring-like freshness of *Geraint and Enid*, by the virginal beauty of the "lily maid" in *Lancelot and Elaine*. But Everyman's Library is spreading Malory's *Morte D'Arthur* everywhere, and those who are once made free of the old romancer's realm do not care to leave it for the changed kingdom of the *Idylls*. The "In Memoriam" is going slowly but I think surely, going not to return to either popular or critical favour. The ode on the Duke of Wellington, and one or two of the ballads are poetry of high quality. The English *idylls* still hold a place with the people; the patriotic poems a less secure one; the classical poems appeal chiefly to the cultured few, but their place is sure; the famous lyrics, a score or more of them, are loved by people and critics alike. Certainly this is a great enough body of work to form the basis of an enduring fame. In the future his poetry may not, probably will not, be thought to rank where Palgrave put it, "somewhere between

that of Virgil and Shakespeare," but we can at least be sure that the world will not willingly let it die.

In conclusion, I can, perhaps, best express my own feeling about Tennyson by quoting the words of Theodore Watts-Dunton: "In a country having a composite language such as ours it may be affirmed with special emphasis that there are two kinds of poetry; one appealing to the uncultivated masses, the other appealing to the few who are sensitive to the felicitous expression of deep thought and to the true beauties of poetic art.

Of all poets Shakespeare is the most popular, and yet in his use of what Dante calls the "sieve for noble words," his skill transcends that of even Keats.

Next to Shakespeare in this great power of combining the forces of the two great classes of English poets, appealing both to the commonplace public and to the artistic sense of the few, stands, perhaps, Chaucer; but since Shakespeare's time no one has met with anything like Tennyson's success in effecting a reconciliation between popular and artistic sympathy with poetry in England." If this estimate be correct, Tennyson is doubly armed against the future; he will be at once a people's poet like Burns and a poet's poet like Spenser.

O. E. A., Toronto, April 6, 1915.

*GROWTH OF DEMOCRACY IN GREAT BRITAIN,
1815—1915.*

BY GEO. M. JONES, B.A.

It is very fitting that we should review the growth of democracy for the past century. It is just one hundred years since the last very great war came to a close. The Napoleonic wars affected a very large part of the world, and had very far-reaching results. The present war is affecting an even larger part of the world, and will, we may well believe, have quite as far-reaching results. Napoleon's wars were waged for personal aggrandizement, the present war is waged for the aggrandizement of Germany and its military ruling class. Napoleon failed because he attempted too much, because he exhausted France, because he failed to understand the national feelings of the peoples around him, and because he utterly ignored moral considerations. Germany will fail in the present war, because she has undertaken too great a task, because she will in time become exhausted in both men and resources, because the German authorities have misjudged their opponents, especially the British Empire, and because in starting and in conducting this tremendous conflict Germany has ignored some of the most elementary moral considerations. These two great wars seem, therefore, to be great, outstanding landmarks in human progress between which it is profitable to consider the advances made.

There are other and better reasons, however, why we should review the growth of democracy in Great Britain between these two wars. The modern Conservative party came into existence, according to Lord Hugh Cecil, at the time of the French Revolution. Modern British Liberalism, the product of the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution, came into being only in the early part of the nineteenth century. Finally, democracy in the sense of government by the people and for the people dates from the Reform Bill of 1832.

The period from 1815 to 1830 was one of repression and stagnation. Castlereagh, Sidmouth, Wellington, Peel believed quite or almost as thoroughly as did Metternich, that all attempts to gain democratic government in Great Britain should be suppressed. The Duke of Wellington felt that if he were called upon to draw up a constitution for a new country, he could not devise any system

so perfect as the British Constitution. He approved thoroughly of things as they were, rotten boroughs and all. It is true that in 1828 and 1829 Peel and his colleagues carried through the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts, and Catholic Emancipation, but they did so only when forced to it by public opinion. In foreign affairs, only, was the attitude of the British Government liberal. In the case of Portugal, Spain, Greece, Belgium, and the new Central and South American republics, British influence was thrown on the side of liberty.

The period from 1830 to 1850 was a notable one. After years of stagnation and repression, there now ensued a period of wonderful democratic development. The Reform Bill of 1832 and the Repeal of the Corn Laws were its outstanding features. The former swept away the system of rotten boroughs, abolished the monopoly of political power held by the nobles and the landed class, and enfranchised the middle classes. The latter not only brought about free trade, but did away with the economic monopoly hitherto enjoyed by the same noble and landed interests. But these two reforms were only the two most important in a series which included the abolition of slavery, the Poor Law Amendment of 1834, the Factory Acts of 1833, 1844 and 1847, the first grant for elementary education, and the giving of responsible government to Canada. Very great progress was made, but neither political party was willing to go any further, and the two were united in opposition to the demands of the Chartists. The Whigs, who had been mainly instrumental in carrying reform measures, had no more desire to give the common people control of parliament than had their Conservative opponents. The Utilitarians and the Manchester School were too wedded to their laissez-faire doctrine to further help economic or political reform.

This period of great activity was followed by one in which only one great measure was passed. From 1850 to 1868 there was stagnation in domestic legislation and activity and bluster in foreign affairs. Palmerston plunged the country into the Crimean War in defense of the unspeakable Turk, and, as usual, a period of war proved to be one of political inactivity at home. Then from 1855 to 1865, with one short interval, Palmerston was able as prime minister to effectually prevent domestic reform, with which he had just as little sympathy as his Conservative opponents. In 1866 Disraeli succeeded in defeating Gladstone's Reform Bill, but in the following year he carried through parliament a more drastic

measure, which established a householder's franchise in the towns, and incidentally "dished the Whigs."

The period from 1868 to 1886 is dominated by two strong men, Disraeli and Gladstone. The one was interested primarily in foreign affairs, the other in domestic reform. The former ruled as prime minister from 1874 to 1880, and placed Great Britain once more in the unfortunate position of bolstering up the still unspeakable Turk, but the period from 1868 to 1886 is dominated by Gladstone. Lord Hugh Cecil in his recent book on Conservatism expresses the opinion that "neither the Tory nor the Conservative nor the Imperialist interests in Conservatism gained in 1874 anything sufficient to compensate them for the injuries that were inflicted by Gladstone in his first and second administrations." Truly, the injuries or reforms, whichever you choose to call them, were very numerous. I need not go over them before this audience, but might simply remind you that the disestablishment of the Irish Church, the Land Acts of 1870 and 1881, the Elementary Education Act of 1870, and the Reform Bill of 1884 were only a few of a very large number of measures that did away with abuses, and advanced the power and the interests of the common people. Gladstone made mistakes in his conduct of foreign affairs, but he was actuated by the best of motives, and it is interesting now to recall that he tried to put into force the same principles that were advocated in 1914 by Sir Edward Grey. He aimed at an informed, restraining concert of Europe. He proposed reduction of armaments to France and Prussia just six months before the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War. He interfered in 1870 to protect Belgium, and induced each of the belligerents to agree to respect Belgian neutrality. He tried to get the neutral nations to protest against the transfer of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany without the consent of the inhabitants of those two provinces. He consented to arbitrate the Alabama claims put forward by the United States.

This great period of domestic reform and of liberal principles in the conduct of foreign affairs was not an accident, nor was it due simply to the genius of one great statesman. The growth of trades unionism, of co-operation, of socialism, and the teachings of John Stuart Mill had gradually educated the mass of the people for self-government, and then the Reform Bill of 1867 had enfranchised the town artisans. This period of progress from 1868 to 1886 was the result.

The Irish question dominated the politics of Great Britain from 1886 to 1906, and the same governments which felt called upon to oppose all change in Ireland, blocked progress in England also. Indeed, in spite of such enlightened measures as the establishment of County Councils in England and Ireland, the making of education free in 1891, and the land acts of 1888, 1891 and 1903, democracy in the sense of government for the people went back, not forward. This was a period, however, of colonial expansion. Between 1870 and 1900, 4,750,000 square miles of territory and 88,000,000 people were added to the British Empire by various conquests and annexations. The Second Boer War was the outstanding event of the period.

The Pent-up forces of radicalism found vent in the elections of 1906, and for the first time a considerable number of labour members took their seats in the House of Commons. From that time till the outbreak of the present war, we have had a period of tremendous legislative, reforming activity. This would have come earlier had it not been for the Home Rule question, for Mr. Chamberlain, before his break with Mr. Gladstone, had advocated reform of the House of Lords, compulsory purchase of land for small agricultural holdings, free education, disestablishment of the church in England, a graduated income tax. In the meantime the demand for reform had become more insistent. Even a partial list of the great measures passed between 1906 and 1914 will remind you that we have just passed through a most remarkable period of democratic progress. The Labour Exchanges Act facilitates the transfer of labour from one district to another. The Old Age Pensions Act provides protection against poverty in old age. On Dec. 26, 1913, there were 982,292 old-age pensioners in the United Kingdom receiving from 1s. to 5s. per week. It is estimated that in the year 1914-15 £13,141,000 will be paid out in old-age pensions. The Workmen's Compensation Act, extending Mr. Chamberlain's earlier act, affords protection against industrial accidents. The National Insurance Act protects against sickness and unemployment. In Feb., 1914, 13,759,000 people in the United Kingdom were insured under this Act against sickness. In Jan., 1914, 2,282,000 were insured against unemployment, although this kind of state insurance has been given, as yet, only to certain trades. An act providing for the feeding of necessitous children protects the young against permanent deterioration in body and mind. The Wage Boards Act and the Miners Minimum Wage Act insure

men in certain callings a reasonable standard of health and comfort. All these measures have the same object, the protection of the individual who would otherwise be in danger of being submerged in the struggle for existence under competition. Mr. Winston Churchill expressed it thus in discussing the Insurance Act: "I think it is our duty to use the strength and resources of the state to arrest the ghastly waste, not merely of human happiness, but of national health and strength, which follows, when a working man's home, which has taken him years to get together, is broken up and scattered through a long spell of unemployment, or when, through the death, the sickness, or the invalidity of the bread-winner, the frail boat in which the fortunes of the family are embarked founders, and the women and children are left to struggle helplessly on the dark waters of a friendless world.

The Budget of 1909 was necessary to provide money for all these reforms, and logically it had to take from the wealthy for the benefit of the poor. The heaviest taxes were, therefore, placed on large incomes, on the unearned increment in land, and on the inheritors of large estates. Lord Stratheona's estate paid in death duties £837,000. Under the present rates it would pay £1,117,000.

The Parliament Act of 1911 and the payment of salaries to members of parliament since 1911 have almost completed the democratization of the government of Great Britain. The peers, who in the eighteenth century dominated the government of the country, and during the greater part of the nineteenth blocked reform, now have the power only to delay measures they do not like. The payment of members makes far easier the maintenance of a large representation of the working classes in parliament.

The century from 1815 to 1915 falls, therefore, into a few very well defined periods, as far as political and social reform are concerned. Stagnation was almost complete 1815-30, 1850-1868, and 1886-1906. Wonderful reforming activity was shown 1830-50, 1868-1886 and 1906-1914.

The Great War has come and put an end, for the time being, to the ordinary course of political, social and economic development in Great Britain. What will be the after-effect of this present struggle? The last great war was followed by a long period of stagnation. What will follow this one? That will depend, of course, to a large extent, on the result of the military operations. If Germany should win, military reaction would be dominant in Europe and in many other parts of the world. If the allies win,

as we hope and believe they will, what then? It is always dangerous to prophesy, but I might venture a few suggestions. A vast amount of wealth is being spent on war, and it will be more difficult, after the struggle is over, to secure funds for the amelioration of the condition of the masses. But the average Britisher believes firmly that he is fighting for democracy against Prussian military despotism, and the success of the allies ought to help democracy not only in Great Britain but on the continent. Even Germany should benefit. If she is thoroughly defeated, we may hope to see a reaction in that country against those principles which are associated with the name of Bismarck, and which were not characteristic of Germany before the advent of that statesman. Defeat in the American Revolutionary War saved English liberty in 1783. Defeat in 1915 may do the same for German liberty. Russia is not, and never has been democratic, but association with France and Great Britain in this great struggle may do much to lead that great country into freer, more democratic ways. Certain developments during the war have been very significant. The British Government has taken control of the railroads, and of the supply of sugar. It has assumed control of some factories, and has threatened to take over more. The necessity of having more ammunition and guns has awakened the British people to the gravity of the drink evil, and may accomplish what years of agitation have failed to bring about. Do these tendencies during the war portend greater governmental reforming activity for the future?

COMMERCIAL SECTION

FAREWELL ADDRESS.

W. E. EVANS, B.A.

When you honoured me last year with re-election to the President's chair I felt that I should not accept the honour, for there seemed to be an uncertainty gathering in my mind as to whether I should continue in a position in which I should be able to serve you. Though I protested at the time it seemed discourteous to persist in so doing, and yet events now show that I should have absolutely refused to accept the office for this year finds me in the City of New Westminster, in the Province of British Columbia, where I am still trying to impart the principles of a commercial education to some of the youth of the land. Technically, I suppose I remain your President since I did not resign the office on coming here as would have been proper, but practically I presumed your worthy Secretary would have taken that resignation for granted, because I had "left the limits" especially as he became my successor in the Galt Collegiate Institute. I think he should have been a lawyer, for his mind has dwelt apparently upon the legal aspect of the case to such an extent that a short time ago he reminded me that a "President's Address" was expected of me. I thought that as there would be a superabundance of good things in store for you, that I should not attempt to inflict such a thing as a "President's Address" upon you. Accordingly I purpose to give you a very brief outline of what is being done in British Columbia in the way of commercial education in high schools.

Before proceeding to that, however, I wish most sincerely to thank you for the confidence you reposed in me in conferring your highest honour upon me. To me it is a matter of regret that I have been unable to do anything during the past year to help you in your work, but I trust that your meeting will be most successful and productive of excellent results.

In this Province there are about 34 high schools, (the term collegiate institute, as understood in Ontario, is not used). Only six

of these have commercial departments, the most important being in Vancouver where both the high schools have flourishing classes. In the Britannia High School, Mr. L. W. Taylor, C.A., formerly of Guelph and Lindsay, is in charge of the work. Miss Bridgeman, formerly of Berlin Collegiate Institute, is an assistant to Mr. W. K. Beach, B.A., who has charge of the department in the King Edward High School.

Up to Sept., 1914, Drawing and Geometry, along with Algebra, were compulsory in the commercial course, but through the efforts of Messrs. Taylor and Beach the Drawing and Geometry were dropped and a syllabus prepared by them was adopted by the Education Department practically without change.

At the end of each year in all grades of high school work a departmental examination is held, and these form the basis of both promotion from one form to another, and of graduation also. Thus, you see, the question you have often discussed as to the desirability of inducing the Ontario Education Department to return to the holding of the commercial diploma examinations, is not one for us here.

The standard for passing is 34% on the paper and 50% on the aggregate marks—lower than the Ontario requirements, it is true, but yet coming every year it is perhaps high enough.

In all the important centres night schools are held from October to March, in which all the commercial subjects are taught, and for the most part they have been quite successful.

This is the first year for commercial work in the high school of New Westminster, and it has fallen to my lot to inaugurate it. A good start with a class of 37 has been made, and the prospects for next year are promising.

I quite realize that this may be of little or no interest to you, but yet I had the feeling that it is helpful, once in a while, to get a glimpse at what is being done elsewhere, and I trust this short sketch of our work in this youthful Province of our glorious Dominion will, at least, not prove too wearisome.

Again thanking you and wishing you all prosperity, I hereby tender you my resignation and bid you farewell.

*WEAK POINTS OF INEXPERIENCED STENOGRAPHERS
AS SEEN BY BUSINESS MEN.*

By Miss S. BLYTH.

To get my material for this topic, I interviewed as many Guelph firms as I could personally. I also enlisted the services of my friends in other centres and, through their efforts combined with my own, I have been able to get opinions which represent conditions generally in our own Province.

The points gathered from these interviews I have grouped under these headings:—

- (1) Those due to lack of general education.
- (2) Those due to lack of special education.
- (3) Those due to the character of the individual stenographer.

One weakness stands out so prominently that it must have first place without any question, this is the lack of good general education. In fact, such supreme importance do some firms give to this matter of general education, that they trace all other defects to it. They make it literally "the root of all evil" in the case of the stenographer. And, certainly, a great many weak points of the inexperienced stenographer are directly traceable to it.

First, on this list of weaknesses due to lack of general education, must come the matter of punctuation and paragraphing. This question was touched upon and emphasized by practically every firm interviewed. One employer says, "It is surprising how little understanding some stenographers have as to the importance of punctuation. Another, the manager of a New York firm employing thirty stenographers, says, "About ninety-five per cent. of the present day stenographers, provided they can read their own notes correctly, misrepresent the meaning of a sentence and sometimes of an entire letter by improper punctuation." This percentage seems high. I hope it is too high to apply to Canadian stenographers. Nevertheless, I am convinced it is a very general weakness.

Another question which comes under the head of general education is the matter of spelling. This comes in for almost universal criticism on the part of the employer. Not only the spelling of technical terms peculiar to the business, but the spelling of ordinary

words, is faulty. Most employers expect to teach the terms peculiar to their business, but the ordinary words and the names of familiar places they expect the stenographer to know, and will soon lose patience if the stenographer repeatedly does not know. Further, the matter of the apostrophe in the possessive is another point on which the inexperienced stenographer, as a class, is either very careless or very ignorant.

Under the same heading also may be taken the matter of the too literal transcription of notes. The stenographer transcribes as she has taken, whether it makes sense or not. The dictator sometimes repeats a word or a phrase unnecessarily, or omits one, and finds to his annoyance that the repetition or omission is reproduced for him in his letter. In the same way he finds obvious errors on his part are allowed to go uncorrected, for the reason that the stenographer seems afraid to make corrections on her own initiative.

The limited vocabulary of the inexperienced stenographer is another of her weaknesses belonging to lack of general education and information. She confuses words which are widely different in meaning, though similar in sound. She gets "lapse" for "elapse," "epitaph" for "epithet," etc. One stenographer, when reading from a printed document, coming upon the word *schedule* for the first time, paused, baffled, and when her employer asked what the trouble was she said, "Well, I don't know what this word is, but it looks like *ske-doo-ley*." The joke was enjoyed by both and so the situation was saved.

Two other points were mentioned which might come under the same head of general education; one the lack of a good working knowledge of drafts and business forms generally, and the other the difficulty in handling pounds, shillings and pence and converting into Canadian currency.

Then, contrasted with these stenographers whose general education is insufficient, take those who have had several years of high school training, or who have gone completely through the collegiate, before taking their commercial work. Their employers speak of them in terms like these: "A perfect treasure." "A gem." "A delight." She catches the idea with a few hints and gets out a reply without having it dictated. She avoids errors herself and corrects those of the dictator so skilfully that he does not notice the correction.

Now, let us turn from weak points which come under the head of general education to those which may be said to come under the head of special education.

Here, the inability to read their own notes and transcribe them correctly must have considerable prominence, though I was surprised to find it was not more generally commented upon than it was. Two causes were ascribed for it:—

(1st) Imperfect preparation on the part of the stenographer. She wants to get through her course quickly and get a position.

(2nd) Nervousness. The dictator is strange, the matter is unfamiliar, and the inexperienced stenographer is so nervous that she makes many mistakes. In this case if the dictator's patience and the stenographer's nerves hold out she is likely to make good, but in the first, i.e., the lack of thorough preparation, she is likely to get dismissal.

And, while on the subject of transcribing notes, I should like to bring up another point. With one exception, the employers told me that their stenographers could not transcribe from each other notes at all. If one girl were away in the afternoon, none of the others could take her note book and get out her work. In the case of the exception the employer said he could give all of the dictation to either one, and the other could get it out just as well as if she had taken the dictation.

The faulty setting up of a letter was very generally commented upon. The inexperienced operator places the letter badly on the paper, paying little attention to proper margins or to the placing of the complimentary closing. On this point I had one amusing experience. A gentleman, who made this feature the special point of his remarks, showed me a letter which he considered perfectly "set up." There were four paragraphs, and these had three different indentations. The "yours truly" was placed so far to the right that if the signature had been at all a long one there would not have been room for it. The letter was nicely placed so far as margins were concerned. This same letter had quite a number of typographical errors, one letter being struck on top of another. Besides, it had neither Mr. nor Esq. in the address.

These typographical errors which have been mentioned incidentally in the last paragraph constitute another serious defect in the inexperienced typist. One employer contends that these should all come under the head of carelessness. He argues that, when a letter goes out with several wrong letters struck and the corrections put beside or above, it gives the impression that the people who allow such work to be mailed are careless and, if careless in this respect, may be equally so in filling orders.

The remaining features of my paper do not come directly under the head of either general or special education, but have to do more with the character of the individual stenographer.

Here, we may take up the matter of dress, which is a matter mentioned by many employers. In almost every instance the complaint was "dressing unsuitably for the work." The dress, instead of being neat and simple, was fussy, the style of hair dressing elaborate, and altogether the general appearance was not what was expected in a business office. There seems to me to be one extenuating circumstance in this matter of unsuitable dress. This is probably the first time in their lives these girls have had money of their own to spend, and in the spending of it the longing for the ornamental is likely to be gratified. However, after this longing has been gratified for a short time a girl's common sense usually comes to her rescue, and she spends her money more wisely.

The home surroundings and home training have an influence, and not a small one either, in the making or marring of the stenographer. The girl, who has had the advantage of a good home training in honesty and honour, is not likely to discuss the affairs of her employer with her companions, or to waste her time during office hours. Some girls forget that the telephone is for business purposes, not social, and some have too many visitors. These, however, are minor weaknesses, and do not seem to be at all general.

The girl who has been taught at home to be careful and tidy is not likely to be careless with her machine, or to keep her desk all in a confusion. In this matter she does not always have the benefit of the good example of her employer. One employer, who had decided views on tidiness and apparently enjoyed discoursing on them, gave me the full benefit of his views, while the desk beside which he was sitting was the most untidy I had seen. In fact, I had never seen so large an accumulation of cigar boxes as were piled on it, and these so carelessly piled that it was evident some would fall soon.

With me at this interview, I had happened to have a friend of mine, who is a stenographer. As we were discussing the matter on the way home, she remarked, "There are two sides to every question. I should like to give a paper on the other side, 'The Weak Points of the Business Man as seen by the Stenographer,'" and laughingly added, "In that last interview I would get more points for my paper than you did for yours."

And this leads us to another phase of the question, the matter of adaptability. To some employers this adaptability of the stenographer is of greater importance than her ability. From what information I was able to obtain, however, I think that this point would figure more largely in a paper on weaknesses of experienced stenographers rather than inexperienced ones, and the greater the experience, the less the adaptability.

Further, some stenographers profit by every correction and suggestion given by their employers, and are constantly on the alert to improve themselves in their chosen line of work. They seem to realize that this is only a more advanced stage of their education. They are still, in one sense, in school. These are bound to rise. On the other hand, there are others who resent any criticism of their work. These stand in their own light.

In conclusion, I give a summary furnished me by an employer which puts the whole matter in a nut shell. He says, "Lacking any one of the following five qualities it is quite impossible for the inexperienced stenographer to become a success.

- (1) Fair education.
 - (2) Good spelling.
 - (3) Knowledge of punctuation.
 - (4) Neatness.
 - (5) Ability to correctly read and transcribe their own notes."
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SOME IMMEDIATE EFFECTS OF THE OUTBREAK OF WAR.

By P. McINTOSH, TORONTO.

Points that ought to interest a commercial teacher.

(1) Exchange Demoralization.

It costs something to send money from one place to another. Thus, if we consider shipping gold from Canada to Great Britain, we understand that for every \$4.86 2-3 (1 pound sterling) sent across the Atlantic, the freight, cost of package, insurance, and interest for the time that the gold is lying idle in the ship's strong room amounts, under ordinary circumstances, to about 2c. That is why a bank quite reasonably asks us about \$4.88 2-3 for every debt of one pound sterling we wish the bank to pay for us on the other side of the Atlantic. How comes it then that soon after the war broke out the banks were asking as high as \$6 a pound?

For one thing, insurance rates would suddenly jump to abnormal figures, and at one time there was no quotable rate for gold shipments.

But, says some one, it is not always necessary to send gold across the Atlantic. Quite true. Through the process of exchange a country is always trying to pay for what it buys with what it sells. The gold need not be shipped unless one country gets out of balance, as it were, and has bought much more than it has sold.

The outbreak of the war found Canada and the United States on the wrong side of the balance, the United States being the more serious delinquent. They owed large sums abroad, but the large grain and cotton shipments which are usually expected to offset these claims were not yet due to be made. Consequently the banks on this side of the Atlantic found plenty of people who wanted to buy exchange but none who wanted to sell. Naturally the price rose just as it would if every one wanted to buy shoes, and no one had them to sell.

On the other side of the Atlantic, there were also difficulties in the way of a free working of the usual conveniences afforded by banks to the business public. There were plenty of claims for goods sold to this side of the Atlantic offered to the banks in Great Britain, but the banks suddenly went out of the business of buying these claims. Gold suddenly became a very desirable thing to

have, and no bank would engage in the buying of anything which might ultimately force it to pay out gold. Thus the Bank of England rate of discount went up from 4% to 8%, and then to 10%. Of course the greater the rate of discount the less that anyone selling a bill to the bank would get for it, and in this indirect way the bank discouraged people from selling to it.

On August 1st the bank's discount rate was raised to 10%, having been raised from 4 to 8 on the previous day, and from 3 to 4 on the day before. The rate had stood at 3% since Jan. 29, 1914. The 10% rate has been equalled previously only on two occasions—in 1857 and 1866. The fluctuation in the bank rate to date this year has been 7%, the lowest figure being 3 and the highest 10. This is the greatest fluctuation on record in any one year. In 1866, the fluctuation was $6\frac{1}{2}\%$.

Gradually, however, things began to straighten out. Thanks to the British Navy, it was made perfectly safe to ship goods across the Atlantic. The difficulty of insurance was solved. Wheat from our Western Provinces could be safely landed in Great Britain. Then the Bank of England began to get back to normal rates of discount. The British Government undertook obligations never before undertaken by a government, placing the whole world under obligation to Britain. In short, all conditions necessary to a smooth working of the idea of buying and selling exchange were again adjusted. Thus on October 8th we find that sterling demand bills were selling at \$4.95, and the Bank of England rate was 5%. On October 26th sterling exchange was quoted at \$4.89.

(2) The Closing of the Stock Exchange.

A is a speculator. B is a stock broker with a seat on the Toronto Stock Exchange. A gives an order to B to buy for him 10 shares of a certain stock on a margin of 20%. This means that for the time being all that A puts in to the hands of B is 20% of the par value of the stock, or, in other words, \$200 cash.

B buys the 10 shares, which happen to be selling at par. This means that he will get the certificates for the 10 shares by paying the \$1,000. How is it that B is willing to pay out \$1,000, having taken from A only \$200?

In the first place B does not hand the certificates over to A, nor does B use his own money. He takes these certificates to a bank, or to a loan or insurance company, and leaving the certificates as security, he is advanced, say, \$800 on call. That is, he will be

required to return the amount loaned at any time that he is called upon to do so.

So long as the stock bought holds its price or advances, there is no trouble. If it should fall, the bank which loaned money on its security will consider that, as the security has depreciated, the amount loaned on it should not be so great, and so B is, we will say, "called ten points on the stock." In other words, he has to pay back \$100 of the loan.

In turn B makes A put up just that much of an additional margin. If A cannot do this he is sold out and B will always take good care that he is never left without sufficient margin to cover any fall in the value of the stock, brokerage and interest.

But war upsets all usual calculations. The minute war was declared, those near the actual theatre of war became possessed of a wild desire to convert paper into gold. Brokers were besieged with orders to sell, but there was no one to buy. Naturally, prices started to decline, the panic spread, and soon conditions on the Paris and Berlin Exchanges were reflected in New York and Toronto.

The slump in prices took place so rapidly that where these margin transactions were concerned it was impossible for the loaning institutions to issue calls quickly enough or for brokers to respond. The brokers in turn were unable to call their clients on whose behalf the loans were really advanced. In any case, before calls for margin had reached the borrower, the stock had in many cases gone below the margin and another was in order. There was only one thing to be done, and that was to close the exchanges before the price of stocks fell away to the vanishing point. By the end of October the Toronto and Montreal Stock Exchanges were opened for limited trading in listed securities. This trading was under the supervision of a stock exchange committee and transactions were for cash.

(3) *Financial Arrangements in Canada to Meet the War Situation.*

(a) The volume of Dominion notes that can be circulated with only 25% held in gold as a reserve, was raised from the limit of thirty millions to fifty millions, thus releasing fifteen millions in gold held as security for that amount of currency. In other words, instead of requiring an issue of fifty millions of Dominion Notes to be secured as formerly, up to the thirty million mark, by a reserve of 25% in gold and a dollar for dollar reserve for the

extra twenty millions, which would amount to twenty-seven millions, five hundred thousand, the Government can now issue the fifty millions on a reserve of 25% in gold, or twelve millions, five hundred thousand.

(b) The chartered banks were authorized to make payment in the bank notes issued by such banks instead of in gold or Dominion notes. This was designed to prevent banks from being raided for their gold by people who, in the first excitement of the war, might be inspired by a fear that credit would utterly collapse, and that gold would be the only desirable form of currency to hold. Some have interpreted this to mean that our bank notes are now made legal tender. This is not exactly true. The provision which enabled a bank to pay its own debts in its own notes was not extended to the public. The ordinary debtor in paying his creditor could not stand on the ground that he had offered legal tender if he had offered bank notes. Fortunately, however, the question has remained a purely academic one. We still have the unbounded confidence in bank notes that we always have had, and they still pass as freely as legal tender.

(c) The Dominion Government was relieved of the necessity, which is usually incumbent upon it, of paying its notes in gold. Here, again, we see very plainly the idea of preventing the Government, like the banks, from being raided for its gold supplies.

(d) The banks were given the privilege, from the first of August of issuing their emergency circulation. In ordinary times, the banks are allowed, from the first of September until the last day of February in the next succeeding year, to issue emergency circulation to the extent of 15% of their combined paid-up-capital and reserve fund. This is intended to increase the circulation at the time of moving the crops when the demand for hand-to-hand money is naturally the largest. The outbreak of the war caused an unusual situation, and this provision was simply ante-dated by one month.

(e) A provision was made which will be explained by the following from a statement from the Hon. W. T. White.

“The Minister of Finance announces on behalf of the Dominion Government, while it is not probable that such action on its part will be required, it stands ready to issue Dominion notes to such amount as may be necessary against securities deposited by the banks and approved by the Minister of Finance.”

In answer to a question in the House at Ottawa recently, it was stated by the Government that Canadian banks have borrowed from the Government under this legislation \$14,439,767 in advances of Dominion notes, secured by approved collateral. They have already repaid \$7,047,267.

(4) *Canada Holds Gold for Great Britain.*

As we have seen, the outbreak of the war found the United States owing large sums to Great Britain. We speak now of items due on current account for purchases of merchandise, payment of interest, and so on. At first sight it appeared that practically the only way in which these debts could be paid was to ship the actual gold to Great Britain. There was no use in talking of the idea of buying exchange because that is founded on the idea that Great Britain owed sums to the United States which could be used to offset the debts to Great Britain.

The plan of exchange had been worked, and there still remained an immense balance of \$250,000,000 for the settlement of which no exchange was available. The United States, like every other nation, was naturally very loath to ship the gold. They were eager to hit upon the excuse that the war and the perils of the sea raised conditions that made it impossible to ship gold. In other words they claimed that they were anxious to pay their debts but that their hands were tied. In order to remove this difficulty, Britain practically said: "Ship the gold to Ottawa. We will arrange to have the Finance Minister of the Dominion hold this gold in trust for us. We will consider this as equivalent to shipping it to London, England. Thus your debt can be paid without danger from the gold crossing the sea."

THE USE OF THE METRONOME IN COMMERCIAL PENMANSHIP CLASSES.

BY T. W. OATES.

In opening my subject, I ask you what are the requirements in penmanship from the pupils in a commercial department? They are:—

- (1) Legibility.
- (2) Ease in writing,

and last, but by no means least, speed.

If I were asked which of those three was most important, I would say none. They are co-equal, co-essential. The work must always be legible whether large or small, and must be small for bookkeeping purposes.

There must be ease if the pupil is to accomplish very much.

There must be speed. This is a day of speed and hustle, and the man whose movements must be measured by standing objects must give way to the hustler.

Consequently, to meet this demand, speed writing must be taught. There must never be slow work.

But it must be speed to some purpose. You have all seen the drive-wheels of an engine turn round and the train remain stationary—but give those moving wheels regularity and the train moves off. So in writing, the useless speed or irregular speed gets the pupil nowhere,—but give it regularity and speed, and he improves. There must never be slow work.

Let us see what are the difficulties in the way of the teacher.

First, one has to overcome that class of reactionaries or worshippers of heredity who believe that writers are born. You would be surprised at their numbers. They have become quite numerous.

There are also a great many people in the world who seem to take pride in a poor handwriting. Because some great men have written a poor hand they imagine they are on the dizzy verge of greatness.

Writing, to so many of our boys and girls, has been a sort of art class, and they have vivid recollections of tiresome copybooks and inky fingers, hours of weary endeavour to copy someone else's writing exactly, and giving up in disgust.

So the first great task of the teacher is to overcome the pupil's lack of active interest, and then the negative influence of the "heredity class" and the worshippers of greatness in the form of poor writing.

And right here let me say we must never forget that learning to be penmen is work! Work! Work! A pill is a pill,—but it may be easier to take by a good coat of sugar. Who is to supply the sugar? You the teacher of penmanship—and in other words the great sugar coat of any subject is interest.

What is necessary to get this interest?

My first, and I may say my only answer is You! Yes! You! What can you expect from a class when the teacher lacks enthusiasm? You must be an ardent enthusiast. It is impossible to impress on the pupil's mind the relative importance of practical writing without that unmistakable earnestness which comes only through a consciousness of ability.

You yourself will become fascinated. When you have interest and enthusiasm, it spreads, it is contagious. There never was an epidemic of measles ever spread like an epidemic of adolescent interest. They will do the rest.

Get a little emulation at work. It is a good thing when used correctly.

You should keep a proper set of each pupil's work taken at proper intervals. This will keep you posted and you will be surprised how it will keep you interested.

Right here let me say I believe in home work in penmanship. Even if it is only fifteen minutes. Get your pupils to keep a blank for their home work so that they may watch their own progress.

No farmer or anyone ever showed more interest in the development of any experiment than do pupils the development of their own writing. I have yet to get more pleasure than I have received when watching a class compare their writing with some done say three months before. All your work is forgotten, and they forget their's in the joy of a work accomplished; something done.

I ask is there anything which aids the teacher to get interest, and help to sugar the pill—and the answer is the Metronome.

Listen! Down the street comes the beat of the drum. The rat-a-tat-tat of the snare drums, the blare of the brass. It is the troops. You stop. You listen to the music. You begin to feel the rhythm of the music; you hum to yourself. You may have

been walking for hours, you are tired,—but that swing makes you feel good—you step out and your fatigue is forgotten.

The soldier will cover more ground with less fatigue when accompanied by a band. There is a fellow feeling instilled. What a difference to a walk with someone who will persist in getting out of step?

You are in a classroom. There is one boy making 100 ovals per minute—another is making 80—and yet another 175—some stop—all are tired and careless, and none have any idea of regular movement.

Tick-tock goes the Metronome, and immediately every one who has any idea of time and movement gets a feeling of being out of step, and feels a desire to get in. Result—a good swinging class. All together, wrists up—arms swinging—thumbs steady, 1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8 and we're off. All at a good smart pace, and no stragglers.

You ask me when may it be used. I answer always. Certainly as long as movement exercises are necessary, and I believe you'll agree with me that that is always. There is absolutely no letter, small or large, which cannot be made to its accompaniment. Even words may be written. I, myself, do not often use it for them.

Someone may ask at what speed shall we set it?

That varies of course with the exercise or letter and class. It may be set from 40 to 210. I would rather err in having it err for the side of being too rapid than too slow,—get them going,—and keep them at it. I keep them going from 100 up, and as fast as my class will stand,—that is something experience must teach.

What effect has this on the pupil? It makes his work easier. The hour passes rapidly. Man cannot be dragged to success with chains or driven with whips. It is only the man who leaps joyously to the front and tackles his task with a gleam in his eye who ever learns it well. When you get your class going of their own accord, you have won three-quarters of the fight.

The rule of the majority is stronger in matters of public sentiment than is anything else, and to do in Rome as the Romans do, is the natural and easy way to get along. So it is in the classroom. Opinion has more weight in a classroom than in any parliament on this planet.

Pupils take a keen pleasure in drawing, but they take an equally keen pleasure in good handwriting.

There are always some who never get the time just right, and that always will be, for some people have defective hearing and

ideas of rhythm. But there are ten who can, for one who cannot. That reminds me of my first endeavours with the Metronome. At that time I was teaching the writing in the Lower School. My commercial colleague taught it in the Commercial Department. He purchased a Metronome and tried it out. He gave it up in disgust inside of three weeks. I bought it and made up my mind that it could be made to work, and I worked it. It has been my worthy lieutenant ever since, and if I could not get another, you could not buy it.

There never was a machine made that will run without a man over it, and the Metronome is no exception.

But, you say, "Can a teacher not count for the class himself?"

Certainly, but the teacher hasn't been born who can count 60 per minute, and do it for 10 minutes out of ten and then go up to 75 exactly. But I say—count with the Metronome. The band-master beats time although the men can read the music. You are the leader of the band,—the drum major of the regiment. But it is a good thing to have an able lieutenant and I can recommend none more than the Metronome.

Someone may say, "Yes, but what will they do when they leave school,—will they be able to do without it? Certainly—once a soldier always a soldier,—given a thorough Metronomic training for two years, and they will not depart from it.

But again I say, it isn't proper materials that count—it is not the Metronome that counts,—it is you—you,—the teacher. You must be a very source of contagion from whence the germ of the desire to excel must come.

Teaching is causing others to know, and it is difficult to draft a code of by-laws that will fit every case. Sometimes pleasantness, encouragement or assistance are sufficient, again a little sarcasm may work wonders, although it is a little dangerous if not administered judiciously, and it might be possible that there are instances when the enthusiastic teacher feels like resorting to a mason's kit of hammers, picks, mallets and drills, and if exaggeration permits, a little dynamite. Nevertheless constant pounding in the same spot will weaken the strongest wall. A teacher must not be afraid of putting in a little extra time and throwing in a little more than he is paid for.

But after all this your efforts may fail, writing after all is largely a matter of imitation. The teacher's work is reflected in the pupils, and so I put my last question to you. What about your

writing? Is it as good as you would wish? Yes? But you say there are other things more important than writing. I grant you that to a certain extent—just while you are saying it—no longer. There is no more important subject for the commercial pupil. It is not enough, but it is essential, for success. Even shorthand and typewriting are better as a result of a good handwriting. Have you not noticed that good penmen are almost always the neatest typists and best outline writers in shorthand?

There is no use of your trying to get pupils to write well if you cannot do it at least fairly well yourself.

I think it absolutely necessary for the teacher to be a good writer on the board as well as with the pen in order to secure the best results of his teaching. Writing is something you must be able to do before you can teach it.

Writing is nothing more or less than control of a pen or pencil, and a conception of the form to be made. Why is so simple a thing so difficult, and why so many poor penmen? Lack of practice you say,—and yet all you need is a simple control of a common every day pen and a picture of a good letter in our minds for our model.

Doesn't it sound easy? Yes, but it means hard work and long hours, but are you doing your duty if you shirk it? Remember Rome was not built in a day. Why do you not get out your pen and paper to-day? Now is the appointed time. Get busy.

Lastly, be a missionary,—talk,—dream,—eat,—and drink good penmanship and drive it home not only to the people of our Province and our pupils, but to our own profession. It makes one's blood boil to see work placed on the board in our schools by teachers—work one would never accept from a pupil. We must get this going,—we are the agents,—this is our day,—what the work of future will be depends on you and me.

In the rush and activity of present day methods but few give any countenance to the tremendous force that writes indelibly the names of educator on history. Yet this force is ever present telling for your success or failure, my success or failure. And that force is force of character—personality. There is a very close relation between the personality of a teacher and his success. The broader our personality,—the greater our success in the schoolroom.

If a teacher is a success, the school is a success, and if both are successes, the student has good backing for a successful career.

Then let us all tramp, tramp, tramp, on to success keeping in step, all together. Let me urge you to try out the Metronome.

Now, there are a great many other details which I use that I might give you, and would only be too glad to discuss, but I would probably tire you.

If I have suggested something of helpfulness to even one of you I shall feel that to the honour and pleasure accorded me a reward has been added.

THE ACQUISITION OF SPEED IN SHORTHAND.

BY MISS M. L. BRILL.

This is essentially an age when speed is a prime factor in the business world. The machinery which can produce the desired article in the least possible time; the equipment which is conducive to time saving, the stenographer who can take dictation most rapidly and can correctly reproduce with greatest speed—these are in demand.

Rapid strides have been made, in recent years, in the way of labour saving devices, but in the rush and hurry of the present day, there is a constant cry for something faster. There is constant demand for something new. The stenographer tries to keep pace with the onward rush but it almost always results in the sacrifice of legibility and accuracy. The possibilities of stenography have been considered limited, inadequate. The business world has been dissatisfied with even the expert, and as a consequence of this dissatisfaction, there has been produced the dictaphone. In many offices these are being used now almost exclusively, but there are objections to their use—raised principally by the typists themselves—and they are not proving entirely satisfactory. The stenotype machine, advertised as “the fastest machine in the world,” was the next invention, and it is meeting with splendid success. Whether these machines will eventually supplant all stenographers time alone will tell. The Stenotype company claims much for its use, and tells us that within eighteen months from its introduction to the public, there were more than eleven thousand successful stenotypists doing the work previously done by stenographers, and doing it more efficiently. Although 2,500 machines were being produced every month these were not sufficient to supply the demand.

Because of certain requirements, however, it is unpracticable to teach stenotypy in high schools, so we have to try to make our students more efficient stenographers, that they may, in a measure, be able to satisfy the ever-increasing demands placed upon them in their future career. For some years at least we shall still have to teach the “hand way” and leave to the business colleges the “machine way.”

To increase the efficiency of our students, then, is our task. We are concerned with ways and means to bring about the desired

result. The essential requisites of the successful stenographer are speed and legibility. Primarily, his notes must be legible, for it matters not how rapidly he may be able to write his notes, if he cannot read them, he is in an utter failure.

In the junior classes too great care cannot be taken in trying to impress upon the minds of our students the importance of accuracy. He cannot master the first principles too thoroughly. At the beginning he should "make haste slowly," that he may learn thoroughly the correct forms.

Many devices may be used to stimulate his interest, to make him careful from the very beginning to observe the distinction between light and heavy strokes, and to use a uniform length of stroke.

One device, which has been found helpful, is to have monthly contests. At the beginning of the month the class selects two captains, who in turn choose sides, and each captain chooses a colour. If the lesson for the day is an exercise from shorthand into long-hand the transcription is first taken orally. Knowing that he must write in shorthand on the board from his own transcription, each one is very careful to see that his is correct. The class then goes to the board, each one between two of the opposite side, to write a portion of the exercise for that day. After the last one has finished, and has returned to his seat (and no one wants to be the last) they are told to mark the work to the right or the left of their own—the work of one on the opposite side. Naturally everyone is anxious to observe all the mistakes made by an opponent. The number of mistakes is written after the colour, above the work. No mistakes counts two; and one mistake, one for that side. The captain reports the number of points won by his side, and the teacher keeps the record—announcing occasionally the relative standing of the two sides, and the result at the end of the month. Even the student, naturally inclined to be indifferent, can scarcely fail to be interested, and none wishes to be chosen last when the sides are formed. Sometimes the most backward student is chosen captain, and it is truly interesting to note his increased interest and anxiety for improvement. He wants to do all in his power to have his side win. If there is time for a race after all the mistakes are corrected the class is always delighted. Two from each side go to the board and write a short sentence dictated by the teacher. The first two who write it correctly each count one for his side, and five failures to have it correct first or second count negative one. These points also count in the monthly contest. The class

criticizes the work, and again they are watchful for mistakes, and eager to give criticism. As those at the board finish writing the sentences, they turn and are numbered one, two, three, four. The teacher always gives decision regarding the first two to be correct. In this way, from the time they are able to write a sentence in shorthand, they are anxious to write it as quickly as possible, and they must have correct forms. The discussion and criticism, too, are always interesting and helpful.

When asked to write a paper on this subject, I wrote to six commercial teachers, whom I had known, asking for assistance. The following questions were asked:

1. Do you use as text book "Course in Shorthand?"
2. How many exercises do you cover with junior class?
3. Do you require written home exercises?
4. When do you begin speed work?
5. What are your methods for the acquisition of speed?
6. How many lessons have you each week for the subject in each class?

I am indebted to them for so kindly coming to the rescue.

All six use "Course in Shorthand." The amount covered by junior class varied according to number of lessons per week. In some schools there are but five half-hour lessons per week in each of the two years, and in one six in junior and nine in senior. I heard of one school having ten spaces a week in the senior class.

Nearly all were agreed that time to begin real speed work was at the end of exercise 209. The letters in the text book are insufficient for this work—supplementary work is needed. I had used "Pitman's Commercial English." Many of the letters in this are too lengthy, and the words are not counted off for different rates.

Two others had used "Pitman's Progressive Dictation." At once I sent for a copy and am much pleased with it. This book has the advantage of having on each page a convenient list of new forms which can be written on the board and studied, by the class writing them a number of times before the letters are dictated. The words in this book being counted and marked for reading at different rates, is a great convenience, for what is more irksome to the teacher than counting words ready for next day's lesson.

Written exercises are required by some. I believe it is particularly helpful in the junior class as much practice in writing the forms, enables them to write them more accurately and to remem-

ber the correct forms. A note-book neatly kept and frequently examined by the teacher is another help. The exercises done consecutively only once, thus forming a key to the text book, is helpful for review work. The pupils soon learn the importance of correcting errors in their note books.

And, finally, how should the class time be divided in the second year to obtain the best results? Undoubtedly each day some time should be spent in writing, from rapid dictation, previously prepared grammalogues and contractions. This work can be quickly marked by interchanging books. The assignment of definite work for home preparation, giving the outlines for new forms that they may be practised correctly, takes but little time. Then the portion assigned the day before may be dictated a few times increasing the speed, and having the reading from notes, frequently changing slightly a few words in the text to be sure it is not a mere memory work. There will then be time for the study of new forms, and the dictation of new matter. Occasionally requiring transcription on the typewriter is beneficial—it has the advantage of saving time in the shorthand class, and is a change for them from “budget work” in typewriting, and definite practice for those whose budget work is completed.

Supplementary Readers for sight reading from shorthand can be used to advantage once a week. The pupils are delighted with this variation from the regular lesson, and it is excellent practice for them.

There is a variety of readers from which to make selection. No two teachers referred to above have used the same book. Suitable for the junior class—near the end of the year—are *Æsop's Fables*, *Select Readings*, including “Rill from the Town Pump,” “Minding his own Business,” etc. Suggestions for senior class are, “The Sign of the Four,” “Silver Ship of Mexico,” “The Cricket on the Hearth.”

That the pupil himself may have some definite idea of his progress—or lack of progress—it is well to take one lesson period each month for dictation of new matter and written transcription of same—increasing the rate 10 words per month, or whatever rate of increase the class may be able to acquire. A tabulated list showing percentage correct each month, and the rate for that month will be watched with interest. It will repay for the trouble of marking, and by doing this the exact progress of each pupil is known during the term without having to wait for the frequent disappointing revelations of examination time.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' SECTION

TWO OPPORTUNITIES FOR SERVICE BY THE HIGH SCHOOL.

BY F. P. GAVIN, WINDSOR.

It is a principle of salesmanship that the first thing a salesman must do is to get the attention of the prospective customer. This I propose to do by quoting a statement from a recent member of The School, viz., "The majority is always wrong."

I have forgotten the wording of the argument, but its substance is this. Since the dawn of history the majority has always ruled. Even in the case of a tyrant this has been the case. As soon as he so abused his power that he had only a minority on his side he was removed.

Law, custom, usage, represents what most of the people agree upon, and for reasons of expediency is accepted by all. From the very nature of the case the will of the majority is conservative, unprogressive, static.

When conditions change so that a law, custom or usage fits very badly then after much education of the majority by the minority it is changed. No sooner does this revision take place than the law or custom again becomes static or out of date.

So that in reality the majority is always wrong.

The progressive, the discontented, the man with new ideas is always in the minority. No sooner does he convert the majority to his ideas than he himself becomes behind the times.

All this does not mean of course that every nonconformist, every reformer, every visionary is right, but it does mean that the progressive man is always ahead of his times, and therefore belongs to the minority. Let us give a fair field to opinions which we do not hold and see no way of accepting for years to come.

The material conditions of the world are changing very rapidly these days. The telephone, the electric street-car, the automobile, wireless telegraphy, moving pictures, antitoxins, are all products of the last twenty-five years.

The social conditions, habits and environment of the people have in the past generation undergone changes greater perhaps than in any previous generation in the world's history.

These greatly changed conditions must be met by the school. The "little old red school house" is as much behind the times as a tallow dip. The school of to-day should be as different from that of forty years ago, as Hydro-Electric is different from the tallow dip.

And yet it would seem sometimes that schoolmasters and school boards are always a lap or two behind in their efforts to meet new conditions. We schoolmasters are apt to be conservative, to wish well enough alone, to pray for the time when the Education Department will issue no new regulations.

To resist this temptation to stagnation we need, like the tired business man, an occasional joy-ride in our work, a breaking of the speed laws or regulations, and a consequent vision of what might be. We would come back with some of the cobwebs blown away, with our imagination touched, with new ideas of the social service that is being demanded of the schools, and new visions of opportunities of service.

Last spring after our Easter Convention I spent some six weeks visiting schools in the Eastern States. I returned to my school with a good many cobwebs blown away, and new standards of measurement. I felt that some of our work was fairly good, that some was done at too high a cost on the part of both pupil and teacher, and that some had survived from the tallow-dip age.

The chief thing I felt, however, was a conviction that our high schools are not giving all the service to the people that we could, that we have not opened the door of the high school as widely to some children as to others.

Prof. Findlay said in his address at the last Easter Convention, "Modern democracy claims the high school, and claims the right of every one to this training.

The problem is to be solved by

(1) The application of a scientific study of the system in which emphasis will be laid not on curricula, but on the needs of the student body.

(2) The providing of a proper training for the pupil from 14 to 18 years of age, who may be unfit for or who may not wish the usual high school course."

He is right; every boy and girl has a right to an education fitted to his or her abilities and needs.

1. Does our rigid and uniform course of study concede this right to every boy or girl?

2. Are all the boys and girls in Ontario that should be attending high school doing so?

3. Are all the boys and girls that are attending getting an education fitted to their abilities and needs?

We have about 15,000 boys and about 18,000 girls attending high school in Ontario. Note that there are more girls than boys.

Has that fact ever been considered in framing our courses of study? There is no evidence in the courses of study that it was.

The great majority of these girls will within a few years after leaving high school enter the oldest, the most widely spread, the most important vocation in the world, a vocation that has greater numbers in it than any other, a vocation upon which depends in a greater degree than upon any other, the conservation, the health, the prosperity and the happiness of the race.

And yet, so far as I can see, we have completely ignored this most important fact. In times past when a girl was educated in her mother's home for her future vocation we could afford to ignore it, but social conditions have so changed that this can no longer be done. The school must meet this new demand for social service.

It is true that in some of our schools we give the girls a little cooking, and call it Domestic Science. For fear, however, that anyone should think we really meant this as vocational preparation we tell the girls this is not a serious subject of study, it is merely a scheme to get a bonus in the real business of passing an examination.

What we ought to have is a special Household Arts course for girls of the same dignity as, and of equal substance to, the other special courses admittedly designed for vocational work. Such a course could be fitted to the abilities and needs of many girls.

This course should contain a good training in English, with a wide reading in English authors, history and geography, some mathematics but not much, and the physics, chemistry and biology relating to Home Science. On the practical side would be cooking, sewing, millinery, art and design, and the management, planning and decoration of the home.

Such a course would retain to school life a large number of girls who now drop out at the end of the first or second years.

It would bring to the high school many who do not now enter because they find no course fitted to their abilities and needs.

It would meet with the hearty approval of many mothers who now bemoan the hours and tears spent by their daughters over what they call, and may be rightly so, "useless subjects."

My other proposal for increased service involves something more radical or may I say progressive than this.

There is a fairly widespread feeling of unrest, of doubt, of uneasiness about the age at which pupils enter high school.

The average age of entrance is a little over 14 years. Some feel that this is too high, and some that it is too low. It is felt that there is in some way a waste, a repetition or over-lapping of work between the public school and the high school.

Let me give some of the evidence that 14 is not the best age.

1. It is generally conceded that 14 is too late to begin a foreign language with the best results. At the last meeting of the College and High School Department it was agreed "that the Department of Education should amend its regulations so as to make it possible to begin the study of languages at least two years earlier than at present."

2. There is a very high rate of mortality in the attendance of pupils in the senior third and junior fourth of the public schools. Principal Gray said last year, "Between the ages of 12 and 14 no new subject is begun, and a distaste for school arises because of the uninteresting repetition of familiar subjects."

A large proportion of the boys are "motor-minded," as distinguished from the book-minded or studious ones. Such a boy does not like school, he likes tools and machines but not books and exercises. He wants to make things, to do things, not to read about them.

Such a boy loses interest, falls behind his class, becomes discouraged and leaves school as soon as the law allows, or even sooner. He is too immature, both mentally and physically, for industry. He drifts into blind alley occupations such as driving a grocery wagon, and as time passes finds no way out.

If anything can be done to keep such a boy in school, to save these wasted years, it should be done.

3. There are many people who advocate a fifth form in the public school. They are quite sincere in feeling that the age of 14 is not

the proper time to make the break between public school and high school, and, indeed, where the boy is not going any farther with his studies the argument is more than plausible.

The solution of the whole question of the age at which a boy should put away the things of a public school and take on those of a high school is not to be found in a study of the curriculum, but is to be found in the study of the physiological changes in the boy. There is a great natural break in the physiological and psychological life of the child at the beginning of adolescence.

This is the natural time for the corresponding break in his subjects and habits of study. The age is about 12 years, and this is the age that he should enter on a course of training with new subjects, a different viewpoint and different interests.

This means some very substantial changes in our school organization. It means six years in the public school and six years in high school, and the scheme is accordingly called the 6—6 plan. The high school period is divided into two parts of three years each, viz., junior high school and senior high school parts.

I claim no originality for the scheme. It is being extensively tried in the United States, and with promising results.

In such an organization the curriculum might be fairly uniform for the first six years, i.e., for the public school course.

It is at the beginning of adolescence that individual abilities and needs begin to show themselves, and these must be considered. We can no longer put them all through the same machine if each is to have his right. At this age the pupil, no longer a child, should enter the junior high school where a choice of courses would meet the varying abilities and needs. There should be at least three courses:

1. Academic—leading to teachers' certificates or matriculation.
2. Commercial.
3. Vocational—the nature of the course depending upon the location and environment of the school.

This 6—6 plan has these possibilities:

1. It would solve the problem of the study of foreign languages, as it is solved in other countries. The pupil who is going on in academic work could begin Latin, French or German at about 12 years.

2. It would retain to the school a large part of the great number of pupils who now leave school soon after the beginning of adolescence. These "motor-minded" restless spirits want and need some-

thing different from the present fourth book work. They need vocational courses, half-time in hand work and half-time in head work. If we can hold their interest at the critical age of 12, they will stay in school, and we can save them from blind-alley occupations. Indeed, we might even save them to a senior high school course.

3. It meets the case of a boy who has only one year to put in after the present entrance. A junior high school made up of the last two years in public school and the first year in high school meets exactly the wishes of those who advocate a fifth form.

4. The Government is making great efforts to introduce agricultural training in the rural schools. This junior high school is the solution of the problem. There should be in every country a number of these rural junior high schools giving a vocational course in agriculture. To these schools, which should not be duplicates of the ordinary high school, send the boys and girls at 12 years to receive a vocational course in agriculture at the hands of men teachers who know farming. At present we have, in many cases, young immature girls from the city making a pitiful effort to teach agriculture to boys who know more than they do.

5. Many continuation schools are trying to imitate the large high school, and are devoting all their energies to turning out teachers or matriculants. Such schools should be junior high schools of the kind I suggest, and the courses given in them related to the needs of the pupils, and the attainments and working capacity of the teachers. Some would become agricultural junior high schools, others perhaps give the academic work to 15 years of age, and others give industrial courses fitted to the local conditions.

6. Finally such an organization would save much of the duplication and overlapping of the public schools. All of the subjects we feel should now be done in the public school could be finished up completely. It is believed that one or two years could be saved in a pupil's school life if there were no unnecessary repetition of work. There should be no waste of the pupil's time. It is the greatest asset of our country, more important than the raw material of forests, mines and streams.

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY MISS ESTHER ABRAM, PRINCIPAL McKEOUGH SCHOOL, CHATHAM.

You will remember, ladies and gentlemen, that my predecessors have urged you to devote much of your leisure time to study and reading, pointing out the many advantages and benefits to be derived from such a course—advantages and benefits not only to each of you individually and personally, but through you resulting in the uplifting of the profession to which you belong. With the same end in view—the advancement of both teachers and teaching profession—let me earnestly ask you to continue to study, and read, and to add to your study and reading, the equally beneficial influences of travel, social intercourse, music, the drama and any and everything else which tends to self improvement and elevation of character.

Not that I decry what you have already accomplished. Far from it. I know many of you have read and studied and travelled; have joined the societies and clubs, and other organizations of your home communities, and there acquitted yourselves with credit and distinction besides conferring much honour on the calling you are identified with. You have done all these things, and many more successfully. I have heard many teachers express themselves clearly, fluently, and in well-chosen language on a variety of topics, what they said indicating invariably a desire to cling to those pure thoughts and high ideals which have always been placed before us as the aim and goal of every true teacher.

It is discouraging, I know, to hear occasionally as we do—O, teachers are all too visionary and unpractical. They go about with their heads among the clouds, forgetting the common earth beneath their feet; but don't let any adverse criticism turn you from the right path. No nation can long endure or long advance without visions and the public school teacher has much to do with the advancement or the decline of the nation to which he belongs.

Ideals are like the stars; we may not succeed in touching them with our hands, but like the seafaring man on the desert of waters, we choose them for our guides, and following them reach our destiny.

Let us endeavour then to keep the teachers and the teaching profession up to the present standard, and to advance beyond it to a still higher standard of excellence. Remember—"Not failure but low aim is crime."

And why should teachers strive and strain to secure that polish of mind and manners—which must result from such efforts? Why cultivate thoughts and ideas which evoke the disdain or ridicule of our critics?

Because we are engaged in the most important business of our country—the work of education.

American educational magazines print in headlines on the covers of their publications this statement—A republic's chief business is education. Our own League of Empire magazine says:—The only sound and permanent basis for an empire lies in an instructed people.

I do not mean to place the whole burden of responsibility for the accomplishment of this education on the public schools. There are high, college and university schools to bear their share, not to mention the home and the world; and we have no desire to deprive any one of them of the privilege of taking part in the great work; we believe in co-operation, the greatest force of the present age, in teaching as in all other lines of work; but for many reasons the public school is the greatest of these factors in education; hence the necessity for excellence, earnestness, ability and zeal among its teachers.

We owe much to the substantial help and fostering care of the Education Department of the Government of our Province. It has enacted and enforced laws for our protection and benefit. It has provided, and is still providing for us free schools and summer courses of almost every kind with the intent and purpose that the public school teacher shall be a fit and proper instrument for the imparting of that instruction which forms the only sound and permanent basis of an empire. All honour to the government for its intelligent attempts to set the public school teacher on a higher plane! Let us respond to this interest, and help and protection to the best of our ability. Let us in return do what we can for the benefit of the children entrusted to our care.

A child is, as it were, a harp of a thousand strings giving forth divinest melody at the lightest touch or the reverse; and the public school gets the child, at its most impressionable age. What possibilities such possession opens up to us! And we must guide aright its ceaseless physical and mental activities, we must stimulate its desire for knowledge, arouse its creative instincts, gratify its great capacity for imitation, guard its morals and breathe into it the spirit of patriotism. These are some of the things required of us for the production of the worthy citizen who some day must uphold the honour of our race. There is no necessity to discuss to-day the advisability for them or the means of accomplishment; we have gone thoroughly into both at other times, and in other places, but the one all-absorbing topic of interest in the group is patriotism. Will you pardon me if I give it prominence to-day? for I believe it to be the magnetic influence which leads to the development of all that is best in the child.

Let us pause for a moment to consider this country which holds our loyalty. Take our own Province first; whether we go into its agricultural districts with their fields of velvety grass or waving grain, their clusters of beautiful shade trees or quiet streams; or into the wild and rugged regions of northern Ontario with its picturesque rocks and remote and lonely places, and great mineral and forest wealth; or on our Great Lakes and broad rivers with their wide expanse of rippling waters and mighty cataracts, how beautiful it all is! Are you not proud of it?

And then Canada, our land of the Maple, stretching from ocean to ocean, with her ice-crowned mountain peaks, her rolling prairies, her fertile plains; presenting an ever varied succession of attractions with every change of season—mantled in snow with bare trees under the leaden skies of winter—bursting forth into singing waters and feathery greens and flowery nooks under the fleeting clouds and April sunshine in spring—taking on the deeper tints of her dense foliage and ripening harvests beneath the clear skies and endless sunshine of her summer months—standing like a goddess of old throughout the long still autumn days decked with her trailing vines and ripened fruits and gorgeous robes of crimson and gold or richest brown. What a home for her people! Fair daughter of the Mother Country—proud to be part of the Great British Empire, with its stirring history of daring, struggle, adventure and achievement by countless heroes, poets, sages, martyrs, warriors and statesmen—an Empire of liberty, justice

and freedom and where might is not right. Truly a grand heritage is ours! Breathes there a Canadian who is not a patriot?

And let us not forget that when the deafening roar of the cannon dies down, and the whining of the shells is heard no more (and the submarines are all sunk) the real time for patriotism begins.

Teach the child that peace hath its victories no less than war; that England's greatness is due as much to her great writers, poets, inventors, scholars, agriculturists and scientists as to her great admirals and generals; that it is better to have genius than wealth. Through wealth Spain went down to the depth of humiliation. Through genius Cecil Rhodes added half a continent to the British Empire. I had rather be a Cecil Rhodes than all the Rothschilds and Rockefellers in the world.

No child loves his country who sits idly by and makes no preparation to pit his brains against the brains of the men of other countries to keep them from surpassing him in production, discovery, invention or research. It is no pleasure to me to hear how much more inventive and cultured and capable of ruling and leading, the men of other countries may be, I prefer the cleverness and leadership of our own.

Then in rousing the child's mental and physical activities, in developing his creative instincts, in stimulating his desire for knowledge, in appealing to his imitative capacities, are we not really instilling patriotism?

Let us set this motive before the children of Ontario, that when they are breaking their birth's invidious bar and breasting the blows of circumstance and rising up from high to higher, to become on fortune's crowning slope, the pillar of a people's hope, the centre of a world's desire, they are doing it for the honour of the British Empire and the credit of the Angli-Saxon race.

When a race has produced its Nelsons and Drakes and Jellicoes, its Marlboroughs and Wellingtons and Kitcheners and Frenches, its Strathconas and Gaults, its Shakespeares and Miltons and Brownings, its Carlyles and Ruskins and Bacons, its Watts and Stephenson and Bessemers and Daveys and Herschels, its Pitts and Lloyd Georges and Sir Edward Greys, what shall Ontario's contribution to the long list be? Don't you think it depends a little bit on the character of the public school teacher, and on the ideals this teacher holds up to the child entrusted to his care? Those ideals or visions without which no nation can long advance or long endure?

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

BY CHAS. G. FRASER, PRINCIPAL, MANNING AVENUE. SCHOOL,
TORONTO.

Madam President, Fellow Teachers,—I wish to thank you for the honour you have conferred upon me by again re-electing me as secretary of this, the largest and most influential department of the Ontario Educational Association for this, the closing year of its existence. With the new constitution which comes into force this year, this body will cease to be a department, and will become one of eight sections of the Elementary Department. I cannot say that I like the new conditions, but under the new name of Public School Section it will be our problem to continue our work, maintain our dominant personality, and extend our influence. I hope, that in the future, our advice to the authorities will be such as it has been in the past—worthy of attention and safe to follow.

The year just drawing to a close has been one of very great activity in our department. The closing up of the work of our last meeting, the preparation of the minutes, the securing of the papers for publication, and the issuing of the resolutions of our department claimed attention first. Then the various committees—and there was a fine array of them—had to be set to work. Each member of each of these committees was notified of the purpose of the committee and its personnel so that no time needed to be lost in proceeding with the work.

This is the first time we have had a woman in the chair in this department, and I am sure our experience is so gratifying that it will not be the last time a teacher sister will receive this honour. It has been another demonstration of the fact that the old question of men teachers or women teachers or educators is answered only when we know what men and what women. I have found Miss Abram prompt in her correspondence, resourceful and helpful, and my work has been very much lightened by her assistance. In fact I wish to express my appreciation of the kindly relations that have existed between myself and my fellow-officers during the year, and my appreciation of the way they have co-operated with me in carrying on the work of your department, and in the preparation of the programme for the present meeting. The result no doubt won your approval, for no better programme has been pre-

pared during the whole course of our history as a department. It is full, varied, and interesting, and that, on a year that was expected to be a lean year.

The addition to our council of representatives from the rural schools and from the ranks of the principals, was a step which may have valuable results. At the close of our last year's meetings each of these members was notified of the appointment, and each was asked to make suggestions for the improvement of the working of the department. So far as I can remember, only one, Professor McCready, replied, and his suggestion was to form a Rural Teachers' Section and make the Association of some real value.

Principal Kerr has been most helpful in all the special work which we have had during the year, out-spoken, suggestive, and prompt. As usual a tentative programme was outlined by your officers at the meeting of the board of directors of the General Association at Thanksgiving time, and when struck off was sent to the officers, and to every one of the six added members so that the programme we have is the product of the efforts of many. We hope our meetings will be very profitable.

To give you some idea of the work that falls to your secretary I need but enumerate the committees on which I have had the honour of membership:

Member of the Board of Directors of the O. E. A.

Member of the Local Executive of the O. E. A.

Member of the Programme Committee of the O. E. A.

Member of the Printing Committee of the O. E. A.

Secretary of the Legislation Committee of the P. S. Dept.

Secretary of the Course of Study Committee of the P. S. Dept.

Secretary of the Superannuation Committee of the P. S. Dept.

Added Member of the Superannuation Committee of the O. E. A.

Member of the Sub-Committee of Three on Superannuation (O. E. A.)

A Committee of one chosen by the Superintendent of Education to present the views of the public school teachers while the regulations were being revised.

Convener of Committee appointed to act with the League of Empire.

Member of the Programme Committee of the League of Empire.

Secretary of the Sub-Committee appointed to draft a suggestive programme for the Quadrennial Conference of the Imperial Union of Teachers which is to be held in Toronto in 1916.

Member of the Information and Publicity Committee of the League of Empire.

And last, but perhaps, not least, I have acted as your Secretary.

In the performance of this work I have had numerous personal interviews with the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister, and the Superintendent, as well as with the Prime Minister and other members of the cabinet. I have been a member of the numerous deputations which have waited upon the authorities, urging various considerations, and I trust that my voice in the council of the Public School Department has been wise, experienced, and progressively conservative. Our department has endeavoured to be careful in coming to decisions and forming resolutions; but having adopted one, we have re-affirmed it year after year until it has been adopted by the Department of Education. When we look over the resolutions that have been passed since the year 1897, when they were first published, we will be surprised at the number of points that have been gained.

I think the policy of this department in retaining the same secretary through the years is a wise one. Experience produces a skill which enables the person to do more work with less effort than a new secretary could. There comes to him a knowledge of conditions which is very valuable in the carrying on of the work. As the years pass around, the correspondence of the department assumes, almost, a personal nature, and when information is desired or advice required, it is known where it can be obtained. As your secretary, I have been accorded the privilege of being able to call up the officials of the Department of Education at morning, noon, or night, and I have been very kindly received. Often, in my discussion of your questions and problems, what might be called secrets of state have come to my knowledge which have enabled us to guard the interest of our department, and at the opportune time to urge certain considerations before the authorities. I am sorry to say that sometimes our advice is not followed at first, but that does not prevent us from continuing to urge it.

The coming year will be one of great importance, and educational problems, very far reaching in their effect, will call for solution. The working out of the new constitution will be no easy task. We shall no longer be a sovereign body but one section of the Elementary Department. The guiding of the interests of the teachers of this Province in the consideration of a scheme for super-annuation will demand much time and thought.

As you are perhaps aware, I expect to be nominated for the position of President of the General Association—the highest honour that can come to an Ontario teacher at the hands of his fellow teachers. I hope to have your sympathy and support. It will be for you to consider whether in the interests of the Public School Section you should have a new secretary. Whatever you may decide on, you may rest assured I shall always rejoice at your prosperity.

CHAS. G. FRASER,
Secretary.

REPORT OF LEGISLATION COMMITTEE.

BY VICE-PRESIDENT J. A. UNDERHILL, PRINCIPAL, CENTRAL SCHOOL,
FORT WILLIAM.

*(For the Resolutions, see page 170, Report of the Proceedings of
the O. E. A. for 1914.)*

Madam President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Your committee begs to report that on two formal occasions and several informal occasions the resolutions of your department have been urged before the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister, and the Superintendent of Education. The last formal meeting being on the 6th day of February last.

We would make the following report as our impression of the attitude of the educational authorities to the questions involved in your resolutions. Naturally most attention was given to the question of a scheme of superannuation for the teachers of Ontario. The numbers in our report refer to the numbering of your resolutions.

2. This work of preparing a course of study on which to base our text-books has been done, or is being done, by the Department; and the new manuals, which will be issued shortly, will indicate the effort of the Department to conform with this resolution.

4. The Minister did not feel inclined to agree to assume such a voluminous task as this resolution might involve, viz., the reading of all books that might be submitted when a text-book was required.

5. This resolution, on the arrangement of the lessons of our readers, has to do with our own Association, and part of the report at least will be presented to you this morning. The Minister is ready to receive suggestions at all times, and will meet our requests if possible.

6. If the slang and incorrect English referred to in this resolution be pointed out to the Department every effort will be made to eliminate them.

7. In reply to the request for the preparation of a phonic primer it was claimed by the representatives of the Department, that the present primer was giving more general satisfaction than any other in existence.

8. On account of the greater importance of Southern Ontario it was said that it would be impossible to comply with this request.

The issuing of an atlas and a companion geography was urged before the Minister.

10. A provincial Entrance examination is now in vogue. Our resolution is to emphasize the retaining of it.

11. This is almost the same as a present. There is a great divergence of opinion as to spelling.

12. The Minister pointed out that the principal's report was being recognized, and that a plan is provided for in the regulations whereby pupils may be passed into the high school on the recommendation of the principal alone; and it is said to be working well in Ottawa, Toronto, and Chatham.

13. The standard recommended is as it is at present.

14. The nature of the present papers show the effort of the authorities to comply with this resolution regarding the arithmetic and the literature papers.

15. The Department is definitely opposed to the suggestion of having the names of the examiners appear on the examination papers. The work is done by committees, and revised and re-revised till the work of the individual is almost unrecognizable. The Minister assumes the responsibility.

16. This suggestion of having representative teachers submit questions was said to be open to criticism; but it was admitted that examiners should be intimately acquainted with the Entrance work.

17. The new regulations require that IV Form teachers must be appointed as the school board representative on the entrance board.

18. An entrance board is provided for now.

19. The excluding of persons under age from the position of teacher cannot be granted while there is such a shortage of teachers.

20. No temporary certificates are now granted where a qualified teacher can possibly be secured.

21. The Minister pointed out that under the present regulations the Department requires certificates of health and character, as well as certificates of ability for public school inspectors. The Department was endeavouring to confine the appointments to those who showed themselves qualified for the work.

22. The question of inspector's standing was presented vigorously. The point which seemed to appeal to the Minister was that no inspector should be allowed to take up the work of inspection, after being a long time out of public school work. Several appointments have been refused recently on this account.

23. The Minister agreed that some way should be found whereby public school teachers might qualify as an inspector other than by a university course. He urged, however, that he had no desire to lower the standard for an inspector's certificate.

25. The Minister seemed disposed to consider this proposal, but legislation which lately has been enacted would indicate a new course of action in regard to the advisory council.

27. Compulsory attendance at manual training, and domestic science classes is provided for in the new regulations.

28, 29 and 30. The question of the school year being changed from the calendar year to the academic year was discussed fully, and appeared to meet the approval of the Minister. The change will likely be made, unless there should be some clause in the Municipal Act to prevent it.

31. This resolution regarding supplementary reading for the Entrance form is in accordance with the regulations at present.

32. The increase in grants to the urban schools was considered out of the question at present, it being war year.

33. The suggestion to raise the amount of salary on which the Department would contribute a percentage has been partly granted, and may be fully granted in the near future.

35. The attitude of the Minister is shown by the introduction of the Superannuation Bill at the close of the Session of the Legislature.

36. The question of a Departmental Gazette has been under consideration.

37. Your committee were told that the questions of this resolution were under the jurisdiction of the Provincial Treasurer.

38. The report of the treasurer shows how we are getting the support of the county institutes; but the majority are still withholding.

*SCHOOL LIBRARY COMMITTEE—FOURTH ANNUAL
REPORT.*

PRESENTED BY CHAIRMAN W. F. MOORE, PRINCIPAL, DUNDAS PUBLIC
SCHOOL.

Madam President, Ladies and Gentlemen,—Much attention is now given by Canadian publishers to supplementary readers, and there is such variety of choice that it would be quite useless for any teachers to say "I cannot find what I want."

This is the fourth report I have had the pleasure of submitting. There is a vast amount of work necessary to make a satisfactory list, not from the want of material to select from but from the *amount* of material. Supplementary readers are an imperative necessity in our schools. Our present Fourth Reader is a collection of material very largely unsuitable for the minds of children ranging in age from 11 to 14 years of age. It is too far advanced for the immature mind. For example, that child were precocious indeed who will have anything but the haziest conception of "Dost Thou Look Back On What Has Been" or "June" or "The Children's Song" or "On His Own Blindness," and many others. There are very few suitable lessons for critical study, and not more than half a dozen good reading lessons in the book.

It was a pity that the Department did not call to its aid a committee of teachers teaching the various grades for which the readers were intended. Evidently the selections were made by some person of mature mind, the mind of one who probably had not taught a lesson in the public school for years. The other readers are somewhat better. The list of supplementary readers as texts for departmental examinations for 1915 (see Circular 58) contains many books far too advanced both in thought and in language for entrance candidates. True, the list is a lengthy one and contains some good titles. Is it not too much to expect a 13-year-old child to understand and enjoy the story of the Illiad, the Odyssey, the Vicar of Wakefield, Evangeline, Ivanhoe, or Wetherall's Poems of Love of Country?

That school is to be envied that has a teacher who has a fund of good stories, and has the gift of telling them well. There will be no trouble in that school or class of having almost perfect attendance.

That school also is blest which has a board of trustees that will supply these books. Two years ago I got about two dozen type-written copies of about 100 good, suitable titles recommended as supplementary readers. I have been pleased to receive several requests from Sunday school superintendents for the list, and one superintendent told me that he had placed the full order for his Sunday school. These superintendents are evidently public school teachers.

LIST OF TITLES SUITABLE FOR FOURTH BOOK CLASSES.

(Most of these are re-told stories.)

Published by MacMillan Company of Canada, Toronto.

Barnaby Rudge	11c.
Little Nell	11c.
David Copperfield	11c.
Christmas Carol	11c.
Swiss Family Robinson	10c.
Here and There in America	13c.
Robin Hood, and Merrie Men	11c.
William Tell	10c.
Idylls of the King	11c.
Tom Brown's School Days	11c.
Hereward the Wake	11c.
Harold	11c.
Robinson Crusoe	11c.

Published by The Copp, Clark Co., Toronto.

The Book of Notable Days	20c.
The York Poetry Books, 3 Vols.	each 15c.
The Cotter's Saturday Night	15c.
John Gilpin, and The Elegy	15c.
The Pied Piper	15c.
Snow Bound (Whittier)	15c.
The Children's Hour	15c.

LIST OF TITLES SUITABLE FOR THIRD BOOK CLASSES.

Published by the MacMillan Company of Canada, Toronto.

Little People in Far Off Lands	7c.
"How and Why" Series	13c.-9c.
"Bright Story Readers"	6c.-10c.
"A.L." Story Readers	12c.
The King of the Golden River	

LIST OF BOOKS SUITABLE FOR SECOND BOOK CLASSES.

Published by the MacMillan Company of Canada, Toronto.

Kings Then and Now	9c.
Rulers Then and Now	9c.
Children Here and There	9c.
Bright Story Readers	6c.-10c.
"A.L." Story Readers (very interesting)	12c.
How and Why Stories	9c.-13c.
Giants and Fairies of To-day	9c.
Children of the Fields and Woods	9c.
The Children's Classics	

LIST OF TITLES SUITABLE FOR FIRST BOOK AND PRIMARY CLASSES.

*Published by the MacMillan Company of Canada, Toronto.**"A.L." Stories**"A.L." Tiny Readers**Published by Thos. Nelson & Son, Toronto.*

Royal King Primer, I. and II.10c.-12c.

Royal Infant Readers, I. and II.15c.-18c.

Royal Crown Primers, I. and II.10c.-12c.

Cycle of Song, 24 Vols., (very beautiful)each 10c.

Royal Treasury of Story and Song25c.-40c.

High Roads of History25c.-50c.

High Roads of Geography25c.-45c.

High Roads of Literature40c.-50c.

And lastly, there should be a good and varied list of magazines dealing with the war. These should be well illustrated.

(Signed) W. F. MOORE,

Chairman of Committee.

REPORT OF "SECOND READER" COMMITTEE.

PRESENTED BY CHAIRMAN JAS. F. KIRKWOOD, PRINCIPAL, EMPRESS
AVE. SCHOOL, LONDON.

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Alaska.....a-las'-ka	Homer.....ho'-mer
Alexander.....al-ex-an'-der	Ibrahim.....ib'-ra-hem
Androclus.....an'-dro-clus	Industan.....in'-du-stan
Arab.....ar'-ab	Italian.....it-tal'-yan
Aulis.....awl'-is	Jericho.....jer'-i-co
Aureole.....aw'-re-ol	Jerusalem.....je-ru'-sa-lem
Austria.....aws'-tri-a	Jackal.....jack'-all
Blitzen.....blitz'-n	Jessamine.....jes'-sa-min
Brahman.....brä'-min	Juno.....ju'-no
Britain.....brit'-tn	Lapland.....lap'-land
Bucephalus.....bu-sef-a-lus	Levite.....le'-vite
Buffalo.....buf'-fa-lo	Lollo.....lol'-lo
Cadi.....ca'-di	Mahmud.....mä'-mod
Camel.....cam'-el	Maynard.....ma'-nard
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Christmas.....cris'-mas	Paris.....pa'-ris
Comet.....com'-et	Philip.....fil'-ip
Crete.....crete	Pisa.....pe'-zah
Cupid.....cu'-pid	Prancer.....pran'-ser
Dancer.....dan'-ser	Priam.....pri'-am
Dasher.....dash'-er	Ridinghood.....ri'-ding-hood
Daedalus.....ded'-a-lus	Reynard.....ra'-nard
Dervish.....der'-vish	Samaritan.....sa-mar'-i-tan
Detroit.....de-troit'	Santa Claus.....san'-ta-claz
Dorking.....dor'-king	Siberia.....si-be'-ri-a
Donder.....don-der	Simpson.....sim'-sun
Echo.....ec-o	Sinon.....si'-non
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Emperor.....em'-per-or	Solomon.....sol'-o-mon
England.....ing'-gland	Sparta.....spar'-ta
Erie.....e-re	Spitfire.....spit'-fire
Eskimo.....es'-ki-mo	Sweden.....swe'-den
Gazette.....ga-zet	Tidy.....ti'-di
Grecian.....gre'-shan	Trojans.....tro'-jans
Greece.....gres	Ulysses.....u-lys'-ses
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Gustava.....gus-ta'-va	

RESOLUTIONS OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

PASSED APRIL 6, 7 AND 8, 1915.

RESOLUTIONS.

I. Expression of Appreciation.

1. That we again express our appreciation of the concessions granted to us and of the many kindnesses and courtesies shown to our committee by the Honourable R. A. Pyne, M.D., LL.D., the Minister of Education, his worthy Deputy, Dr. Colquhoun, the Superintendent of Education, Dr. Seath, and the other officials of the Department of Education, and for the consideration they have shown in promoting the welfare of our department.

II. The Public School Curriculum.

2. That the report of the committee on Supplementary Reading for each of the classes of our Public Schools be adopted, and the committee be requested to continue its work and make a further report when it has sufficient material therefor; and that the Minister be asked to publish this report as a special bulletin.

III. Public School Text-books.

3. That when the Minister of Education contemplates the authorization or revision of a text-book on any subject, he should give at least one year's notice of his intention thereof, that those who wish, may submit a book in typewritten form if necessary; and that Public School Teachers be consulted in the preparation and selection of all Public School Text-books.

4. That two committees be appointed (1) to arrange the table of contents of each of the Third and Fourth Readers into two well-graded groups of lessons suitable for the junior and senior class in each book; (2) to prepare an index of the titles of the lessons; (3) an index of the authors; and (4) a pronouncing vocabulary of the proper names.

5. That we disapprove of the inclusion in our readers of selections containing slang and incorrect English and too many selections that breathe, too much, the spirit of war.

6. That we appreciate the work of the Government in changing the former Primer; and we express the hope that the Primer may be further improved so that in the matter of word recognition it will be better adapted to a logical use of phonics.

7. That no map having any part misplaced, whether a wall-map or a map in a geography or an atlas, should be permitted to be used in any of the Public or High Schools.

8. That the Minister of Education be asked to place in our geographies a railway map of Ontario, a full-page map of Palestine, and also a map showing the name and position of places connected with the missionary journeys of St. Paul.

IV. *The Entrance Examination.*

9. That a *Provincial* examination be held at the end of Form IV, senior, of the public school course, and pupils who pass this examination shall be entitled to attend any high school, collegiate institute, or continuation school in the Province.

10. That the papers be set on the following subjects of the course—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, composition, literature and geography; and that no marks shall be deducted for mistakes in spelling, except in the spelling paper.

11. That the result of this examination be considered in connection with the teacher's estimate of the standing of the pupil in each subject; and that the executive of this department be a committee to prepare and present to the Department of Education a feasible plan for carrying out this suggestion.

12. That the standard required for passing be 40 per cent. on each subject and 60 per cent. on the total.

13. That at least 40 per cent. of the marks in Literature be assigned on prescribed work; that at least 25 per cent. of the marks in Arithmetic be on mechanical work in the four simple rules; and that there be two papers in Arithmetic, (1) mechanical work, (2) practical problems.

14. That the names of the examiners appear on the examination papers as formerly.

15. That the papers should be marked only by teachers who are actually engaged in teaching Entrance work. In large cities the number of examiners could be proportionately increased.

16. That there be a local board of examiners for each inspectorate, to direct the work of the examination. It shall be composed of

representatives of the three educational interests connected with such work.

V. *Teachers' Certificates.*

17. That no certificate to teach, except as an assistant, be granted to any person under twenty-one years of age.

18. That, as we are of the opinion that there is only an occasional vacancy in the public schools of Ontario for which a legally-qualified teacher cannot be obtained, *providing an adequate salary is offered*, no permit to teach should be granted, except in *absolutely unavoidable cases*, such as are provided for in the forms which the Department of Education has prepared for this purpose.

19. That the matter of certificate should not be the only point to be considered in deciding what teachers shall be qualified to take the position of teacher or principal, of any public school.

20. That we request the Minister of Education to make such changes in the present requirements of public school inspectors' certificates as will make it possible for public school teachers to qualify—the essential being *successful public school experience and capability* rather than academic standing.

21. That the requirements for a public school inspector's certificate shall be:

(a) The holding of a first-class professional certificate of qualification or a degree in arts granted by a recognized Canadian university;

(b) An experience of ten years' successful teaching in public schools, covering all grades of public school work;

(c) The passing of a pedagogical examination, controlled, and set by the Department of Education, or the securing of a degree in pedagogy in any recognized Canadian university.

22. That in the opinion of this Department it would make for the betterment of the public schools of this Province, were the Science of Education given equal status with other departments in the provincial university, and the present course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy opened to all matriculated students.

VI. *The Advisory Council.*

23. That the number of public school representatives on the advisory council be increased from four to seven, and that the

Province be divided into electoral districts, each of which shall elect one representative to the council.

24. That members of the advisory council should have the power to introduce the discussion of educational questions.

VII. *Departmental Regulations.*

25. That the Department of Education be requested to make the School Year end on June the 30th, and to have the annual reports of the pupils' attendance, etc., made out accordingly.

26. That in the opinion of the Public School Department of the O.E.A. the present method of listing as "*the school population*" all persons of the ages 5—21 (inclusive) serves no good purpose, and has proved grossly misleading to ourselves and to our sister provinces; it should therefore be dropped and for these figures should be substituted the number of persons of the ages 6—16 (inclusive) and the number of children of compulsory attendance age, i.e., 8—14 (inclusive).

27. That the method of listing the actual number of pupils registered during the year, charging to the school as full year pupils, all Entrance class pupils, all young pupils entered in April and September, all pupils admitted from other schools and all pupils removed to other schools during the year has proved very misleading; and the Department of Education should require instead the average monthly registration and the percentage of attendance based on the same.

28. That grants should be distributed to urban schools, on a basis similar in principle to that now in operation, for the distribution of grants to rural schools.

29. That the regulation regarding the amount of rural teachers' salaries on which the Government will pay 40 per cent. be changed from the present amount—\$350-\$600—to salaries from \$400-\$700.

30. That the purpose of teachers' institutes should not be limited to the discussion of educational methods, but should allow the consideration of educational questions affecting the welfare of the schools and the teachers.

VIII. *Superannuation of Teachers.*

31. That we express our appreciation of the work of the Hon. R. A. Pyne, M.A., LL.D., Minister of Education, and those asso-

ciated with him in preparing and presenting a Bill for the Superannuation of Teachers and Inspectors. That we approve of its general features and promise him and them our hearty support in securing its enactment.

IX. *An Ontario Educational Gazette.*

32. That we recommend to the consideration of the Honourable the Minister of Education the publication of an Educational Gazette, to the end that every worker in the field of education in the Province may be informed of all departmental regulations, instructions and reports, and that teachers at large may be bound together by a recognized official organ of intercommunication.

X. *General.*

33. That this Association continues to urge very strongly its disapproval of (1) melodramatic and comic picture shows; (2) the manufacture and sale of cigarettes; (3) the comic supplements that are appearing in some of our Canadian papers.

XI. *Contributions from the Institutes.*

34. We thank the local institutes which, in the past, have contributed to the funds of this department of the O.E.A., to carry on the campaign of reform which has been inaugurated. It demands a considerable amount to meet the postage and printing bills, and we hope *each institute* will, this year, contribute to this fund. Some institutes have contributed their share every year. Let this become a habit in *every* institute; begin now by sending \$5 or more to the Secretary of the P. S. Department of the O.E.A.

The work and aims of the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association and of the local teachers' institutes throughout the Province are identical. Each in its own sphere—the Municipality, the County or the Province—is endeavouring to create a fraternal spirit among public school teachers, to strengthen the bond that exists among them, to discuss topics of general interest to the members of the profession, and, by all legitimate means, to improve the conditions under which they labour; and the success that will attend their efforts will be dependent upon the measure of co-operation that exists between the central association and the local institutes.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING IN THE PRIMARY GRADE.

BY MISS ELIZABETH CONNOR, KINGSTON.

Madam President, Fellow Teachers,—Before reading what I have written on the subject of “Supplementary Reading in the Primary Grade,” I wish to say that most of my teaching has been in the primary grade. I have purposely avoided saying anything of what constitutes a suitable book for primary pupils, for I feel that if the teacher’s attitude towards the subject is right it were better that she were herself the judge of the books accessible, both as to matter and also as to the arrangement of the matter.

I have grouped my thoughts under the following heads:—(a) The teacher’s aim; (b) The pupil’s aim; (c) In what way and by what material these aims may be achieved; and I have touched slightly upon hindrances and oppositions that are to be met.

If the mind of man is ever to lose all its capacity for baseness and cruelty, if liberty is ever to take the place that tyranny now occupies, if knowledge of both material and spiritual truth is ever to be the common property of our whole world, then the youth of our schools must imbibe the best the world now has, that the work which lies ahead of them may be truly great.

Not too soon can we begin work on the children; the right start determines more than half the success of the attaining to the desired goal. Children’s public school course may be said to be their start; and as books play such an important part in education, the children must be introduced not merely to the best books themselves, but to the best mental, moral, physical and spiritual teaching to be found in them.

In the teaching of reading in the primary grade, *the teacher should have a two-fold aim*.—to create in the pupils a great desire to find out for themselves the thoughts contained in written or printed words, and to develop the pupils so that their whole being will be in harmony with the best the world affords. They must then be supplied with the key to discover these thoughts, that is, they must be given the power whereby they can recognize written or printed words through their own efforts. Also, it must be made well worth their while to discover these thoughts. What joy comes to children, their little beings are thrilled, when, after making the effort, with success, to find out the words in a sentence, they find

also a thought that appeals to them—either their sense of humour has been catered to, or they are reminded of some pleasant incident of their past experience, or perhaps their little souls have been touched with sympathy, or they may have gained information that is pleasing to them. Whatever the source of their joy they are amply repaid for their trouble, and are anxious to make another try.

If the teacher should aim to create in the pupils a love for the right kind of reading, then *the pupil's true and ultimate aim should be the getting of thought*. However, it is not this that first influences them to want to read. Children delight to imitate, and as they see those around them reading, they wish to be able to do the same. Again, all children love to do things they have just found out they can do, and so when they realize they can really read, they are anxious to display their power. But, after all, these incentives are short lived, and if the children have not found something in the thoughts themselves that appeals to them, they will very soon cease to make much effort. Nevertheless the teacher must make use of these means in enabling the children to make their first efforts, always of course keeping in mind that she wishes them shortly to exhibit signs of the true aim, that of getting thought. She must cater to their ambition, to the joy that comes to them from being able to do, and also to their love of imitating until she has created in them the one aim, that of grasping thought.

The mastering of the technique, though absolutely essential, is but one phase in the teaching of reading to beginners, and is a very small item in the development of the children unless the use of it serves the purpose of stimulating their minds, souls and bodies to a higher level of activity. Thus *the teacher should know what is rightly interesting to the children*, she must take them as she finds them and work at both their mental and language powers, ever remembering their immortality.

Children in the primary grade cannot be expected to receive any new ideas or new knowledge through their reading, therefore all their reading matter must be within their understanding.

At any particular time for teaching a reading lesson, *the efficient teacher must know what is engaging the attention at that moment*. If it be something she has little or no control over, and the children deserve no censure, then the subject of their thoughts should be made the basis of their reading lesson. If this be not

the case then the teacher must create the interest that is essential for the making of a successful lesson. Incessant hammering is going on in the ventilating shaft of your room, and possibly the wielder of the hammer singing "Its a Long Way to Tipperary." What can you do with that distressing noise going on? Certainly, it is out of the question to proceed with the lesson you had planned. Why not take a reading lesson on what is unavoidably uppermost in the pupils' minds?

Supposing your school room door creaks. When the period for reading comes, why not make that the subject of the reading, that is, if there be nothing very special to prevent it. Throw the door open in such a manner as will aggravate the squeak. Possibly the pupils will laugh at the peculiar sound. Enter into it with them and at once write on the blackboard something like this:

"Do you hear that noise? Is the door crying?"

It sounded as if it were.

"What is the matter, Mr. Door?"

"O, my hinges are so stiff. Will you please rub some oil on them?"

"We have no oil for you, Mr. Door, but we shall try to get some."

"You are kind boys and girls. If you put oil on my hinges, I shall not cry any more."

The children will strive so eagerly to find out all the new words, and will need just a careful presentation of it, to enable them to discover every word for themselves.

All reading matter to be attempted by primary pupils must contain little or no thought that requires explanation on the part of the teacher. Preparation for future reading must always be going on. How much there is in the children's own life that may be wisely used as the basis of reading matter. Activities in which they have been engaged, possibly a few moments ago or as far back as several weeks; their knowledge of and joy in Mother Goose and other stories; their home relations; incidents that have occurred which interested them; nonsensical ideas; imaginary ideas, etc. When children enter school they have already acquired so much knowledge and have so many interests that there is no difficulty whatever in securing suitable matter for their reading (each teacher for herself, for all schools have conditions peculiar to their environment, and much reading matter suited to one would be of little value to another). If the children continue to procure know-

ledge and widen their interests at the same rapid rate that they already have been doing, then there is an abundance of suitable material for reading matter. All that is needed after the pupils have mastered the technique, is to see that their education is continued along lines that rightly interest them, and continue supplying suitable reading matter. There can be then no lack of interest during the reading period.

I pick up a book hitherto unheard of by me. I glance through its pages and nothing attracts me to it; I lay it down again unless the subject be one in which I am interested. Again, I pick up another book hitherto unknown to me; I turn over its leaves and I find thoughts attune to my own; I read the book. How anxious, then, should we be in our attempt to train all pupils so that they will find no affinity in any book of low aim. Reading ought not to be given to pupils of the primary grade for the purpose of having them gain new knowledge, but rather that they may, as it were, commune with the thoughts expressed as they would with a congenial companion, getting thought and thought being created in them. If there be no sympathy between their spirit and that of the matter they are reading, how can the reading be enjoyable, and if not enjoyable, how then can it to any extent be helpful? This point cannot be emphasized too strongly, and every person who has the guidance of children should let the fact sink deeply into the heart. The teacher should clearly have in mind what kind of books children should take an interest in, not only at the present but later on in their development; and with the aim in view of having this class of literature ready to put into their hands at opportune periods, she should daily have observation, information or language lessons, games or plays, constructive or experimental work, or the telling or reading of stories by herself, all based on the class of matter that is contained in these desirable books.

Primary pupils' education is far in advance of the thoughts contained in their reading matter. *Reading matter that is but even slightly beyond the pupils' intellects, retards rather than adds as a spur to self-activity.* Therefore, their education should be kept in advance of the thoughts and ideas found in their reading matter. If children depended upon what they read, for their education, their development would be very restricted. They should be educated so that their intellectual and spiritual powers will be so keen that they can appreciate and enjoy the books it is the teacher's duty and privilege to see they are supplied with.

It is as much the part of the primary teacher to prepare the way for the reading of the higher grades as it is that she use wisdom in the choice of matter for her own pupils' reading. *She should see to it that her pupils are being interested and instructed in all things that make for development, spiritually, physically, mentally and morally.* Their sense of wonder in all about them should not be deadened by any monotony of school life. Their sense of humour should be given scope, and I believe every normal child at the age of even two years, keenly appreciates humour, but much in our system of school discipline and also the arrangement of having more than one class in the same class room, helps greatly to retard its development, if not to kill it completely in many cases. *The world should be made a great centre of interest to the children,* and from this they will be led to commune with the Great Spirit of the world and the Creator of the whole Universe.

The people of our world should also be another centre of interest, and from this they will be led to endeavour to take their place in this world of people, and prove themselves valuable units in the unfolding of God's plans and purposes. Educated thus, the best books will be their choice.

The primer at present in use in our schools is an excellent book for supplementary reading: it cannot in any sense be termed a text book. Nothing is so deadening educationally to the children as to hear these stories, one at a time, read by every member, or almost every member of the class: as deadening and monotonous as if the teacher were to tell the same story over twenty or thirty times at the one telling. *Necessary as oral reading is the teacher must be wise or it will tend to hinder educationally.* Every primary teacher knows how much reading has to be done by the pupils from the blackboard, before any one lesson in the primer can be attempted by them. After they have mastered print, little or no time need be spent on actually teaching the lessons in the primer. The pupils will have been given the incentive that will induce them to attempt the reading of any particular lesson for themselves. Then when the opportunity occurs, which opportunity is often prompted by the pupils themselves, this particular lesson will be taken up by the whole class, most of whom will already have read part or all of it, for their own pleasure, but who are now extremely anxious to enjoy it with the rest of the class, and with the teacher.

Before any suitable book or reading matter is put into the hands of pupils six or seven years of age, they must be given some incen-

tive to read it. Talks on the subject matter; impersonation of characters whether animate or inanimate; an appreciation of and interest in the line of thought contained in it: one or more of these should be made the means of inciting the pupils to read it for themselves. Take, for example, the story of "Little Bo Peep," as found in our primer. By the time the pupils are ready to read about her, they should at least have heard about this little shepherd. The acting Little Bo Peep and the singing of the song might, I say, might, be left until later. How delighted the children are when they read by their own effort such sentences as these, from the blackboard, carefully and very slowly, written by the teacher, one at a time:—

"Did you ever hear of Little Bo Peep?"

"Yes, yes, we know her."

"Well, who is she?"

"Why, she is a little girl who lost her sheep."

"How did they get lost?"

"O, she fell asleep one day when she was minding them."

"And what did the sheep do?"

"They ran away as fast as they could."

After reading this, the pupils will tell you about the picture of Little Bo Peep to be found in their reading book, and indeed, if they have access to their books, they will have turned to the picture. *Enter into their joy* and with some such remark as this:—

"Do you think you could read that story in the book? It really is no more difficult than what you have been reading here."

Almost every child will immediately start right in to see if he can read it; but for reasons quite obvious to the wise teacher, she will not, as a rule, have them continue their efforts then, but will say something like this:—"O, well, we haven't time now, you put it away, and perhaps this afternoon or to-morrow we shall read it." By to-morrow just about every pupil has made the attempt and succeeded very well, as is evidenced by the readiness with which they can read it, showing clearly they had grasped the thought. Enjoy it with them. Have them sing it, and sometime soon have them play it. Having accomplished the reading of this, many will be induced to attempt "Little Boy Blue" without any further incentive from the teacher. Or, take the lesson on page 24 about the boys marching. Have the pupils read some such sentences as these from the blackboard:

"Can you march?"

"O, yes, we can march."

"Do you like to march?"

"Indeed, we do like to march. We like to march in our room. We like to march in the hall. We like to march upstairs."

"Can you march well?"

"We try to do our best."

After reading this the pupils will of their own accord attempt the story in the book.

The supplementary reading material that is procurable in book form is very often too difficult to distribute promiscuously to a primary class; and again, what is suitable for one class may not suit another; so it is well that *every teacher have a good supply from which to choose*. She should at least have another set of books similar to our primer, and one or more copies of numerous other books. These, with other material which I shall mention later on, ought to be fair equipment in the hands of the teacher who has a high sense of the value of good books. From the splendid collection here on exhibition it ought to be possible for each teacher to secure a goodly number that appeal to her personally, and that she knows would best suit the pupils under her particular method of teaching.

Much use should be made of the following for *supplementary blackboard reading*:—

1. Suitable stories from the teacher's supply of books.
2. Original reading matter on things of keen interest to the pupils.
3. The asking of questions and the answering of them.
4. The verbal answering of questions that are written on the blackboard.
5. Action sentences, the action to be carried out.
6. Original reading matter, to be used as an incentive to induce pupils to read certain stories for themselves.

For *supplementary reading as seat work*, the following should be used, particularly where there is more than one division of pupils in the class room:—

1. Suitable books, the subject matter of which the pupils are prepared to read intelligently without the teacher's assistance.
2. Sentence cards which when arranged in order make a complete story.
3. Cut-up poetry, each card containing a line.

4. Sentence cards which can be arranged in order as question and answer.

5. Sentence cards, each one of which contains some information pupils are capable of understanding and appreciating.

6. Word cards which when arranged in order express a complete thought which the pupils are capable of appreciating.

The teacher should also have a care for *supplementary home reading*. *Pupils should be given some incentive to attempt suitable reading matter at home*, for when children are just learning the great art of reading (wonderful in their eyes, too) they will attempt reading anything and everything; and if at this period, the teacher takes little care to see that their reading is such that the thought itself appeals to them, they will likely stop reading of their own accord altogether, after they have acquired the art, or else they will do, as a vast majority are now doing, read what will gradually draw them downward—what will cultivate a low standard of intellect, a dwarfed spiritual being—what will lower their ideals of morality, besides deadening responsibility for the physical well-being of the human race.

THE ONTARIO READERS AS A PORTAL TO LITERATURE.

BY JOHN A. TRASK, PRINCIPAL ALEXANDRA SCHOOL, LINDSAY, ONT.

I wish to thank this Association for the invitation to speak upon this very important topic. I felt that when your President, Mr. Rogers, asked me to do so, that I should at once accept and do the best I could with it. I wish also to congratulate this Association on their choice of Mr. Rogers as their presiding officer. I know of no one who has the interests of the teaching profession more at heart than your President; and I congratulate him also on reaching this very important position.

I intend to take a very optimistic view of the subject since this is the last address of the convention. We value the men of literature for their best work. We value Milton for his best work—"Paradise Lost," and so let us value our readers for the best that they contain.

Some one has divided the arts into two classes, the lesser and the finer. The lesser arts supply the needs of man as, for example, the carpenter and the blacksmith, while the finer arts are for the enjoyment of man. Architecture, sculpture and painting appeal to the eye, while music and poetry appeal to the ear. In architecture we have the greatest amount of material used to get the desired effect, in sculpture less, and in painting where only a flat surface is used less still. In music we have still less material used, and in poetry less still. Here we have only symbols used, which are combined to give us the desired effect. On this basis then, poetry, and in fact all literature of the highest type stands first in the arts. We should then look upon the selections in our readers as works of art. Professor Alexander and others have stated that there are three aims in literature, namely, knowledge, mental discipline and culture. Let us now apply these aims to our readers.

I. KNOWLEDGE.—(a) There is knowledge such as we get in philosophy, history and biography. Here the actual truth is told. There should be perfect candor in the statement of things—accuracy and sequence of events. We find in our readers lessons which were evidently placed there for that purpose, "At the Close of the French Period in Canada" and "British Colonial and Naval Power."

(b) There is knowledge such as we get in essays, descriptions, and travels. The authors in these are not so rigorous in their facts. The personal element which was entirely lacking in the first is found very largely here. The author rather tells the effect of things upon his own mind. He is ready to give us his opinion of things. Ruskin does this in the lesson "Work and Wages," and Froude also in "An Elizabethan Seaman." In this type of literature we very often get some very beautiful passages as in the lesson mentioned last:—

"Beautiful is old age—beautiful is the slow-dropping mellow autumn of a rich, glorious summer. In the old man, nature has fulfilled her work; she loads him with her blessings; she fills him with the fruits of a well-spent life; and surrounded by his children and his children's children she rocks him softly away to a grave to which he is followed with blessings. God forbid we should not call it beautiful. It is beautiful but not the most beautiful. There is another life, hard, rough and thorny, trodden with bleeding feet and aching brow, the life of which the cross is the symbol: a battle which no peace follows this side the grave: which the grave gaps to finish before the victory is won; and—strange that it should be so—this is the highest life of man. Look back along the great names of history there is none whose life has been other than this. They to whom it has been given to do the really highest work in the earth—whoever they are, Jew or Gentile, Pagan or Christian, warrior, legislator, philosopher, priests, poets, kings, slaves—one and all, their fate has been the same—the same bitter cup has been given them to drink. And so it was with the servants of England in the sixteenth century."

(c) There is also truth of idea—which is found in creative literature. Prof. Wilson, on Shakespeare, says, "His thoughts, passions, feelings, strains of fancy, all are of this day as they were of his own, and his genius may be contemporary with the mind of every generation for a thousand years to come." This type of literature is not written for a class of people like a law book. There are no existing originals. It is purely a creation of the mind. What Prof. Wilson says of Shakespeare is true of literature. The generalized opinion of the individual agrees with the generalized opinion of the community or race. It belongs to more than one age, and one country. It is universal—general ideas become social laws, hence the close relation to morality.

We all believe that one soul has an influence on another. But Tennyson in the "Bugle Song" puts this idea beautifully for us when he says:—

"O love they die on yon rich sky,
They faint on hill or field or river,
Our echoes roll from soul to soul
And grow forever and forever.
Blow, bugle blow, set the wild echoes flying,
And answer, echoes answer, dying, dying, dying."

Again, when Queen Victoria celebrated her Diamond Jubilee, it was an easy thing for the people to believe that England's greatness lay in her fleet. But Kipling in his "Recessional" reminds them that God is the author of their sovereignty and the source of power.

"Lord God of Hosts be with us yet
Lest we forget—lest we forget."

But we must not forget that evening that Wolfe made his final and successful attack on Quebec. As they were passing along, he quoted to those about him Gray's "Elegy," and exclaimed, "I'd rather have written that poem than take Quebec." Why? Because Wolfe realized that Gray had accomplished something grander and more beautiful than any military victory he might be able to win. To write a beautiful thought in beautiful language is the highest and noblest work of man.

II. MENTAL DISCIPLINE—McMurry, in his book, "How to Study," gives several requisites for study. All of which may be applied to the subject of literature.

(a) We should ask ourselves why study this? Our hygiene textbook heads the first chapter, "Why study the subject?" Every lesson in the reader is given for some specific reason. "The Lord is my Shepherd" to teach reverence.

(b) No writer fully states his views—we must infer a good deal. In "Irreparable Past" the author states that "the words of Christ are not like the words of other men. His sentences do not end with the occasion which called them forth: every sentence of Christ is a deep principle of human life." The "Prodigal Son" lesson calls for a good deal of supplementing of thought. No set of readers can fully do the work in literature—supplementing of thought must be found in a broad and deep reading. Hence, all

the attention paid to public school libraries, selections from Dickens and George Eliot leads to the reading of these authors.

(c) The lessons should teach the organization of ideas. Let the pupil study carefully to see what organization the author had in mind when he wrote the selection.

(d) The pupils must judge the soundness and worth of statements that he reads. In after life he must place a value on all he reads. He must learn to appreciate the thoughts and sentiments of the authors he reads.

(e) Memory must have a place in all study. Perhaps in the past we have placed too high an estimate on it. Our government in Ontario spent \$2,000 on nine pictures for normal schools. These were to act as types or touchstones. Students would learn to appreciate a good picture by being in contact with them. This would be their standard in the future. So in literature the pupils must have types to which he can refer what he reads in the future.

1. Prose—(i) Description, "The Great Northern Diver"; (ii) Narration, "Scrooge"; (iii) Argumentation; (iv) Exposition, "The Irreparable Past."

2. Poetry—(i) Epic, ballad, "Ancient Mariner"; (ii) Lyric, sacred, "Lead Kindly Light"; Patriotic, "Scots Wha Hae," "How Sleep the Brave," "Ye Mariners of England"; Love, "Afton Water"; Nature, "Cuckoo," "Daffodils"; Grief, "Break, Break, Break"; (iii) Dramatic, "The Quarrel."

There is also another side to this. It is necessary for the pupil while young to learn many selections, the value of which he cannot appreciate. But as the years go by he will understand the meaning and be able to apply it in his own case.

"There is a Power whose care
Teaches the way along that pathless coast,
The desert and illimitable air,—
Lone wandering but not lost."

Again many pieces that we learn off by heart in youth may in after years be a great source of pleasure to us. We may be able to quote them for the purpose of giving pleasure to others.

(f) Then we should learn to use the ideas that we get—use them to advance ourselves. There should be apperception in all our reading.

(g) Then we must also remember that there is no fixity of thought. As we grow older our ideas of things change, as Paul says in lesson on "charity." "When I was a child I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man I put away childish things."

(h) Then, last of all, there should be a forming of individuality. We should absorb the ideas of others, and make them part of ourselves.

III. CULTURE.—Thomas Carlyle in "Honourable Toil" says that he honours two men. The first is the one who supplies the needs of the body and the second the one who supplies the needs of the soul. But how beautiful it is when we find one doing both works together. It is for us to absorb the thoughts and feelings of others that we read. Make their thoughts and feelings part of our being. Then we must shed this forth as we go through life. Every person we meet realizes that we have studied the best that this world has to offer to us. Culture is the highest test of education, and man becomes a citizen of the world.

CONCLUSION.—Browning in "A Death in the Desert" states that man has three sides. "What does," "What knows," and "What is." It is to satisfy these parts of man's being that we have the aims in literature, of knowledge, mental discipline, and culture. A written examination will test the first two, but not the third. Oral reading will test all three. Let us read distinctly, give the sense, and cause one to understand.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING AND THE TEACHER.

BY GEORGE A. DANTON, LL.D., NEW YORK CITY, SECRETARY,
SIMPLIFIED SPELLING BOARD.

Note.—In this paper, the spelling of the author's type-written synopsis of his address is followed. It illustrates many of the simplifications proposed by the S. S. Board.

There is no other movement of an educational nature now before the English speaking world which has received so much misrepresentation as the movement for the simplification of English spelling. This is partly due to the fact that altho the simplification of the spelling of the English language is a highly technical matter, involving a knowledge of the sciences of fonetics, pedagogy, and sycology, and a considerable insight into the comparativ legibility of printing types, yet almost every layman, without claiming special ability in any of these fields, regards himself as quite competent to pass judgment on any proposition affecting a change of the spelling-usage of the day. Besides the misconceptions that might seem reasonable from a restricted point of view there ar many others which we hav to meet which to this audience would seem incredibly absurd and only amusing. Statements of the objections to spelling reform with a frank consideration of them, and accurate information regarding the movement in general can be obtained free by any one who puts himself into communication with the Secretaries of the Simplied Spelling Board at 1 Madison Ave., New York, or the Simplified Spelling Society at 44 Great Russell St., London, Eng. The Simplified Spelling Board has composit membership, and its constituency is equally composit. The board contains men of international reputation in all walks of life. Upon it may be found authors, teachers, college presidents, men in public life, and a group of filologists who ar unexceld in their ability to deal with problems relating to the history of the language and its orthograpy. There ar, on the Simplified Spelling Board, or wer until the time of the deth of two of them, the editors of all the large American and English dictionaries, and considered nationally ther ar members on the Board from Britain, the United States, Canada, New Zealand and Australia. Indeed, the activ and able assistance of Mr. Wm. F. Maclean, M.P., Toronto, and of Drs. David Solon and Alexander MacKay, Nova Scotia,

has done much to further the movement on both sides of the line.

The spellings which have been suggested, less than 7,000 in number, are by no means a novel innovation. Long before the present Board was thought of, the British Filological Association and the similar American one urged even more radical reforms than those suggested by the present Board.

The movement is progressing with gratifying rapidity. There are at the time of this proof revision, 98 schools and colleges which have adopted some simplifications for use in their official publications and catalogs, and whose students are permitted to use the simplifications in their written work. These institutions mean nearly 7,000 teachers and more than 90,000 students. There are 81 newspapers and periodicals with a combined circulation of nearly two millions, in which some of the Board's recommendations appear, so that the public is able to see these simplifications and to recognize that their use involves no break in the continuity of English thought.

The reason why English spelling needs simplification is because it has what is known as a *suggestive* alphabet. There are two kinds of alphabet, representative and suggestive. The representative alphabet is one in which each sound of the alphabet has one sign, and each sign represents only one sound. Such an alphabet is practically non-existent, but even the Russian and Polish approach nearer to it than the English. The best spelled language of western Europe is Spanish, in which there is practically no spelling problem. The Italian is a close second to it, and its almost phonetic spelling is one reason why the Montessori System thrives better in Italy than in English-speaking countries. German, while not phonetically spelled, offers no such difficulties as our mother tongue, for the main difficulty with German is a surplus of symbols for its sounds. In French one can always read what one sees, though one cannot always spell what one hears, while in English he can neither read new words when he sees them nor spell them when he hears them.

Our suggestive alphabet is a problem. There are thirteen different ways of writing long *o*. There are eight ways of representing the "sh" sound. The letter *o* represents everything from long *o* in "note" to short *i* in "women." There are numerous ways of representing short *e* and the long *ē* sound; and the *ī* sound is represented not only by the *ī* in win but by the *e* in English and *i* in busy. In fact the combinations possible are innumerable, so that it has

been estimated by some mathematical mind that there are perfectly good analogies for spelling the word *sissers* in fifty-eight million ways.

The only ultimate solution of the problem is fonetic spelling, and fonetic spelling at the present day is impracticable, not only from the expense of introducing it, but because an adequate fonetic alphabet has not yet been devised which will meet the practical demands of every day teaching. Instead of waiting until such fonetic spelling is feasible, the board suggests a beginning which will have as its policy "a gradual and progressively simplification of English spelling on the basis of present English analogies." Such a spelling will not cause any overturning of established reading and writing habits, while it will enable those who wish, to continue to improve their spelling by the gradual addition of new forms,—the addition to be as rapid as the speller's constituency can assimilate them.

Pedagogically speaking, our spelling is lacking in that it appeals more largely to the eye-minded than to the ear-minded, and the ear—which is not only a welcome guide to good spelling but should be the fundamental criterion of good spelling—judgment—is almost totally at fault in a large number of cases, since our spelling is anti-logical from the audile point of view in nine cases out of ten. To teach a child to spell well means, at the present time, to create a facile motor habit, but investigations by Rice and others have proved that no amount of attention to this motor habit can transfer it from a word spelled in one way to a word sounding the same but spelled in a different way. With all the drill and all the effort, our spelling remains not merely illogical but anti-logical. It cannot be worked out by reason, and in spelling, "he who thinks is lost."

There is no doubt at all in my mind that the teaching of spelling with its absolute insistence on mere memory drill does actual harm to the child, because his ability to think is not fostered by it, and real thinking is absolutely prevented during his acquisition of the habit. Careful observers estimate that from seven to fifteen per cent. of the school child's time is spent on spelling,—time which is almost wholly given up to repetition and drill, and on attempts to create multiple associations for the eye in a subject which should logically be based on the ear. Pedagogically speaking, the whole spelling problem seems one of the most atrocious mockeries that are foisted upon the children of an English-speaking world. They are

cheated of their birth-right to spel as they speak, in those words which they speak correctly in the stratum of education in which they happen to be, and ar compeld constantly to drill automatically on the words of their activ vocabulary or what is far too common, to repeat senselessly words with which they can hav absolutely no ideational associations.

But more than that, spelling is only a social habit. It has no contentual value in the curriculum. It is made the shibboleth by which we judge a person's intellectual status, but we forget that it has only the value of a social habit because we hav put it into that group of apperceptions. Wer we to get rid of the fetish that spelling has an esoteric value, much would be gaind. If our social habits ar such that we ar acquainted with the use of the fork, the napkin, and the varius other impedimenta with which civilization embellishes custom, we insist that for social purposes those with whom we consort hav these graces, but we do not judg a man's stamina by them. So it should be with spelling. We insist that a person in our social stratum spel as we do, but we must recognize that there is no intelleetual advance gaind thereby. It may be an added grace in the present stage of the world's development, but a larger view of what life really means wil sho us that he who spels wel does not necessarily gain in bredth of vision, in power of thinking, and of the mystery of himself, and of Nature. It is not, as a prominent editor has said, "That we gró," "by the excreescences of spelling." These excreescences hinder our advance. They ar not facts which can be co-ordinated in logical series, or associated with similar facts from the audile memory of the child. They ar rather isolated fenomena, which must be taken by themselves or be grouped together anti-logieally and anti-linguistically.

In spite of this, there ar many who object to simplified spelling. Some use the outworn argument that the connection with the past thru etymology wil be broken. For these I can only say that if this wer so, some prominent etymologist would have discovered the fact long since, whereas every reputable scolar of English has been on the side of spelling reform. Wer Archbishop Trench living to-day, and fully informed of the advance which etymological science has made, he certainly would not take the stand that he did during his lifetime. He would say as Ellis did, in 1877, twenty-eight years before the Simplified Spelling Board was started:

"After what has been said by such eminent philologists as Professor Sayce, Dr. Morris and others, it is clear that the proposed

alteration of spelling can not be in the direction of showing the histories of words. That is absolutely impossible. I have tried to imagine a way in which it can be done; but I have found it totally impossible. You can not teach a person the relation of a word to a language which he knows nothing in the world about. And if he does know something about it, it is a very difficult, slow, and laborious task. There is nothing which requires greater acumen, research, and patience, and the examination of a vaster number of details than philology.”

The child, at the age when he is learning to spel, knows nothing about etymology. A little boy once askt his father how to spel bow, and was told b-o-w. He askt contemptuously “What is that extra *w* doing in there anyway?” The practically correct anser that this *w* was a remnant of a Germanic guttural which appeard in Anglo-Saxon in an aspirated form, and that the *w* is a remnant of this aspirate, now disappeard, would hav ment nothing to the ehild; nor would the same ehild who askt what P-h-i-l-i-p speld, and being told *Philip*, askt “How can it be Filip when it says P-h-i-l-i-p?—hav been satisfied to learn that it is some people’s mistaken notion of the notation of the Greek letter ϕ which causes us to rite that way, tho the Russians eall that letter *f* and the Italians and Spaniards rite it *f*.

The real reason why people ar opposed to simplified spelling is because they do not like it. Their associations ar entirely with the old spelling. They forget that if the ehild’s associations ar constantly with the reformd spelling he wil receive exactly the same esthetic reaaction from the reformd spelling that the grown-up does from the conventional spelling. There is nothing intrinsically beautiful in the spelling of the word *colonel* or *enough*, and the eye-appeal on the printed page is purely faetishus. The great poets have paid very especial attention to their spelling. Lord Tennyson was vice-president of the simplified spelling movement in England in his day, and his contriution to the cause is to spel the past tense and past partieiple “*t*” when pronounst with that letter, e.g., *erost*. The present Poet Laureate is interested in simplified spelling and has done much to further the movement, because he believes that the present slovenly, unhistorical, and inadequate garb of our language is doing much to destroy our eanons of pure speech; because English in always being inadequately represented, loses the power to maintain itself independently in the face of the onslaught upon it by the ever increasing *cataclysms* of argot.

The present movement for simplified spelling is an entering wedge for the great problem. We ask the help of every teacher in this movement. We ask the teachers to inform themselves more fully upon it; to write for circulars as recommended above, and to distribute these among their friends; to realize that simplified spelling is part of the great conservation movement of natural resources—for language is a natural resource—now going forward on this side of the water. In the face of the general inability to think of anything but destruction and carnage, let those of us who hold high the torch, continue to bear it well alight through the surrounding darkness. One banner that will illuminate will be the banner of our wonderful English language, but this banner cannot fly free in the breeze when tied down by ropes, and when weighted with the accumulated errors and vagaries of centuries. Let us simplify our spelling, that our children may learn more easily of the bigger things of life, that our language may be purified, and that it may spread throughout the world as a beneficent agency of a larger, freer, and more democratic civilization.

SCHOOL GARDENS IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY S. B. SINCLAIR, M.A., PH.D.

The most potent remedy for the present social and economic unrest is scientific, co-operative, intensive farming, and the natural and most effective preparation for intensive agriculture is the school garden, including the school-ground demonstration garden, the city backyard home garden, the rural school project, the boy farmer club for placing city boys on farms during summer vacation, and other agricultural activities administered by school authorities and correlated with school work. The introduction of the school garden by rational methods and with proper limitations and adjustments, does not mean the displacement of the three R's as the basis of sound learning, or the substitution of cash instead of character as the true aim of education. Dr. Claxton, Commissioner of Education for the United States, recently said, "Culture is that intangible something that comes from intelligent labour, rendered in the service of our fellowmen." Such a spirit in school garden work gives it a distinct culture value.

In 1885 the Cook County Normal School garden was the only one in America. To-day there a number of cities, *e.g.*, Philadelphia, in which every school has a school garden. In Los Angeles there are eleven agricultural directors whose chief duty is to supervise and assist in school garden work. Fresno, California, has a field deputy superintendent who spends his entire time in school garden work throughout the county. At Dayton, Ohio, the city school superintendent arranges with farmers to take city school boys as assistants on the farm during summer holidays. Near LaFayette is a rural high school with a farm of eighty acres; the farmer has a class room in the building and the pupils work on the farm with him in the afternoon. These are illustrations of the fact that after thirty years of experimentation, wise and otherwise, the school garden in some form or other has become an organized part of the national educational system of the United States.

It has been found that for best results the teacher must be a practical gardener, and should have a private garden of his or her own. The teacher should have had both agricultural and professional training.

In cities good results have been secured from the appointment of such specialist teacher for each large school to teach nature

study and agriculture, and to supervise garden work during the summer vacation as well as school days.

The best results seem to have been attained in situations where the agricultural education of the school children is primarily under the charge of the Department of Education, and where the department received the enthusiastic assistance of the Department of Agriculture, the agricultural college and the community.

The most satisfactory prize for children's work is that which comes from the ability to furnish their home table with vegetables and flowers, and to purchase books with the money received from the surplus product of their own gardens.

Seventeen hundred children from Dayton, Ohio, were given seeds which they planted under supervision in backyard home gardens, ten feet by twenty-five feet in area. The children not only kept the family table well supplied, but, in many cases, sold the surplus product.

KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

MISS LILLIAN B. HARDING.

Fellow Kindergartners and Friends,—Again we halt at another mile-post on our educational journey, and while we refresh ourselves at the little wayside inn of the Easter Convention, let us briefly survey the road over which we have travelled, with the hope that perchance—the secret of growth,—the road to attainment,—the way to content—may become revelations to hearten some fellow-traveller.

This is a time of intense emotion in every country, people are roused as never before in the struggle for freedom and individual liberty. Never so forcibly has it been shown as in this greatest of all wars, how the caste system of education nullifies independent thought.

Two educational ideals will always threaten mortal combat, one—the mediaeval spirit—passive, receptive, autocratic; the other—the modern spirit—active, dynamic, democratic. Knowledge and discipline primarily, on the one hand, conduct and character primarily on the other. To hold fast to that which is good in the mediaeval ideal, knowledge and discipline, as a means, not an end, and to accept character and service as the standard of measurement in all life's activities is to train independent thinkers capable of ruling themselves in the greatest democracy of the world.

This plan for freedom of the individual was published in Froebel's first book, "The Education of Man." Think of it—published in a military nation, with military discipline, and ideas of conformity and uniformity prevailing in the school! Such utterances as Froebel gave voice to, were truly in his land revolutionary. Even to-day, with the pendulum swinging far on the commercial side of education this great apostle of Kindergarten, childhood, manhood and womanhood, learning his pedagogy from the master teacher and following his symbolic method of simple teaching, succeeded in half a century in preparing the way for the doc-

trine of liberty, for individual development based on the theory that the process of education must be through self-activity from the kindergarten to the university. One of our foremost educators to-day says, "It is impossible to state too strongly our debt to the kindergarten for the insistence upon the educational value of free spontaneous action. In all his work Froebel stands for the emancipating truth that action is worth while in education and life in proportion as it is joyous." Over-regulation then of a child's life in work, play, government, discipline, etc., gives little chance for normal growth, and ample opportunity to produce what might be called a manufactured child. Surely no one is excusable in this age, when the main concern is with the motor-power and not with the machinery, who fails to see that educational influence can only be interpreted in terms of the child's self-activity, that what children do is infinitely more important than what is done to them. The idea in the mind, the image in the imagination, the conviction in the conscience, the purpose in the will, the love and passion in the heart, the mystical experience in the soul, these are the sources of true power, resulting in a forceful personality.

There are two types of workers possible in every educational community—Artisans and Artists. The Artisan works from a pattern, a model, that is, he imitates or copies. The Artist works from the Froebelian ideal, free self-expression, he creates. The Artisan's outlook is narrow—he cannot see beyond the model. The Artist's horizon is broad, and reaches out as far as truth itself: thus his ideal is a source of perpetual inspiration and an incentive to greater effort. Courses of study and rigid standards of excellence, etc., have forced many into a hard and fast limit of narrow routine. To produce the Artist teacher, and surely such is the ideal of every administration, the special feature of the educational dispensation must be this recognition of the individuality of the child and the personality of the teacher.

Life is original—child life will repeat itself in its own way, even though problems are a universal fact of life. This is why the kindergarten cannot exist as a mechanical process. No system can organize a prescribed course for it; we would have destructive formalism were we to thus endeavour to cut all children after the same pattern. Any educational discussion that persists in regarding only what the child is to secure in maturity, robs him in the play-time of life of his birthright—happiness.

Strange it is, but skeptics still exist, even in the ranks of the elect, and many zealous advocates of education have not yet been

able to rightly estimate the excellence of the kindergarten. A doubt, a sort of mild tolerance characterizes the mental attitude and the surprising thing is that some are still loathe to be enlightened. In all the wealth of modern thought, and amid the uncertainty of pragmatic morals there remain a few well established principles we can hardly refuse to accept without falling into moral and educational ship-wreck. These are the principles set forth in the kindergarten, and all must admit a greater than Froebel has not risen up amongst us. While one must ever welcome independent thought, the adverse view arouses the suspicion that the cloud of tradition is dimming the vision of these negative educators, and they are attributing success in life to the exclusive pursuit of the three R's. However, the advocates of freedom have arisen. We learn to live by living is their maxim. The earth smiles in the spring-time with the joy of growing. When all young and growing things are free, why should not the plants of the human race be free also? The kindergarten has, does, and in the sacred name of childhood may it never cease to stand for individual self-expression and individual self-development along the lines of the child's legitimate desires, instincts and impulses.

As the sun, which first touches and illuminates only the tops of the hills, finally floods all the valleys with its light, so the truth of the kindergarten which first illuminates only the higher minds of a community, sooner or later will light up the thoughts of all who are capable of thinking and judging.

The true kindergarten, like a tree, grows root, trunk and branch, and if given time so increases the child's capital stock that when his capability fits him for larger investment he naturally and logically moves on acquiring more knowledge, and with wider experience, a higher self-expression, for between our best primary room and our best kindergarten there is no gap. The nurturing and developing spirit which is the fundamental influence in the kindergarten is also the fundamental influence in the primary room to-day. Long ago it was once said, "I do not like the kindergarten child. He always has an idea and something to say about every subject we talk on. After a while we are able to break him of the habit." This type of primary teacher is of course now obsolete. And the educator of to-day encourages initiative and endeavours to foster the creative power which the kindergarten seeks to develop. The trend of modern education with the kindergarten and the primary grade is to consider the child of primary importance, and the subject taught of secondary importance.

Without in any way therefore, separating the kindergarten from the school, it must always to be rightly understood, be considered as a definite and unique step in education with a definite object in view—nurture.

What a dramatic moment it was in the life of Froebel when standing on the crest of a hill, he found the name for his long-thought-of system of child-training—Kindergarten.

A foreign name—no—a foreign system—no. It is broad enough, deep enough, exalted enough to embrace childhood of every clime—black child, white child, child of the tropics and child of the poles are folded in its motherly arms.

The kindergarten is most emphatically not a sub-primary, whose object is to fit the child for grade work immediately. It is a factor in education which through its own means meets the essential needs of childhood, and because it meets these needs it does prepare the child's mind and heart and body for the next higher step.

A mother in one of our less favoured districts once said, "I like to have my boy go to kindergarten because it helps him to get hold of his mind so that when his studies come down on him he'll have the patience to bear them."

If the kindergarten succeeds in developing some degree of power—power to see, to choose, to do, power to give attention, to apply one's self to the activity at hand, power to control impulse, power to enter into the experience of others through sympathetic imagination—if the kindergarten can develop such power proportionate to the child's age and capacity—it surely is preparing him for the next grade which continues to develop greater power in the same direction. The kindergarten will start the child toward the goal through the medium of play for this is his play period. The grades will take the child farther on his way through the medium of work. When Froebel cast the pebble he chose to call Kindergarten into the sea of educational conflict, it created ripples whose outermost circles will wash the shores of eternity itself. And so,

The Kindergarten stream will hurry along,
And sing to the world its strange sweet song.
It will sing of the birds on the tree-top high,
It will sing of the clouds as they float by;
And the flowers will nod, as it sings of them, too,
A song, little child, for you, for you.

THE CHILD AND THE STORY.

BY MISS VIRGINIA E. GRAEFF, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Miss Graeff, in the second of her series of lectures, advocated a psychological classification for stories as being helpful. In this connection, "For the Story Teller," a book by Carolyn Sherwin Bailey, was recommended as a volume full of suggestion.

A connection between the stories of a child of kindergarten age, and his later reading was suggested as a desirable correlation.

The nursery rhyme could lead up so naturally to the ballad and epic, and as children, as a rule, loved poetry it was melancholy to see that this taste was not developed in later years, as very few older people seemed to care for verse.

Connecting her subject of to-day with the lecture of yesterday, "The Child and the Picture," Miss Graeff, illustrating her theme from the story telling work of her art students hanging on the wall, told some picture stories which she had found to be favourites with children. "The Child of Urbino," a tale of the boyhood of Raphael, by Louisa de la Ramée, "The Robin's Christmas," an old English story, and "The Happy Prince," by Oscar Wilde, were among the stories suggested for older children.

The speaker advocated the reading as well as the telling of stories, because it gave children an appreciation of books from their earliest years, and often classic prose from an author is better for a child than an oral rendering of an author's ideas in the words of a story teller.

THE CHILD AND THE BOOK.

BY MISS VIRGINIA E. GRAEFF, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

Connecting her lecture of yesterday, "The Child and the Story," with the subject of to-day, "The Child and the Book," Miss Graeff suggested the correlation between both subjects, the stories told to the child leading in gradual progression to his later reading. An account of the experiment of carrying the kindergarten idea into some work with a class of children's librarians was given by Miss Graeff, and an effort to do for the reading child what had been done for the playing child was carried out in many ways. The returns from questionnaires were of great interest, and showed the need for this work in this new field. Lists of books were given and reviewed by Miss Graeff. There is to-day, she said, a splendid field for the kindergarten idea in the work of the children's librarian.

BIRD SONGS OF CANADA.

BY MISS LOUISE MURPHY, MONTREAL.

In the summer of 1535 Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence River for the second time. Writing of that journey he records in his journal that they heard linnets and thrushes, and bird songs as fine as any in the great gardens at Fontainebleau, and to him these birds were *les principaulx et bons compaignons*, and as they proved good friends to the Pathfinder of 1535, none the less are they to-day good friends for us to possess.

The thrushes that Jacques Cartier heard are still our finest songsters. "The Hermit," "The Veery," "the Wood-thrush," and our own robin redbreast.

Champlain was a lover of nature, too, but it remained for Nicholas Denys, Governor of Acadia, to publish in 1672 "A Natural History of North America." His descriptions of the wild bird life of that period make an interesting study, for he compares the avi-fauna of Old France with the New, even describing differences in their songs.

In 1590 a young Italian composer put the song of a Nightingale into musical notation. 310 years later I heard the Nightingale in Switzerland for the first time, and found in comparing the music and the song, that the general form had outlived many generations of songsters, for I heard again the same exquisite trills, the same range of intervals, in point of fact, the same song structure—only the little musician had arranged his own melody.

But now, to our subject, the "Bird Songs of Canada." We have a host of singers and a wealth of song. McIlwraith reports for the Province of Ontario some 317 species of wild birds.

Every bird sings with mechanical precision, a song built upon a rhythmical structure peculiar to his family, for rhythm is the marvel of bird-song.

Examples: "The Crow"—"caw" direct and even "caw," "caw," "caw," "caw"—may be sung fast or slow, high or low—minor or major.

The robin gives a variety of musical sentences upon his family rhythm of cheerily, cheerily, cheer up, but nowhere is the blending of family rhythm with individuality of melody more marked than in the barnyard king, Coek-a-doodle-doo. Never has

a dawn been announced that has not given to the waking world a new musical setting to cock-a-doodle-doo. (Illustrated by actual melodies.)

Melody pure and true bubbles from every song sparrow in this Province, illustrated by a duet observed—two friendly song sparrows. Then followed songs illustrating the thrush family.

Then questions as to how to attract birds in a practical way, by planting mountain-ash trees and similar food-producers around our schools, and boys encouraged to make bird-houses, baths, and feeding lime, to be placed in quiet corners of the school-yards.

Songs sung from “A Little Book of Bird Songs” to bring out the life of the following birds:—

The Goldfinch, the Baltimore Oriole, the Bluebird, the Ovenbird, Red-winged Blackbird, the Chicadee, Captain Crow, the Nuthatch, English Sparrows, the Robin, the Song Sparrow, the Wood Pewee.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN ENGLAND.

BY PETER SANDIFORD, M.Sc., PH.D., TORONTO.

The English have ever been afraid of centralising and bureaucratic tendencies on the part of the State. In England voluntary agencies of social amelioration and control exist by their thousands. In the field of education they are especially numerous. Private schools flourish, and, in spite of the growing power of the Board of Education, continue to increase in numbers. Hence, it will not surprise my audience to learn that considerably more than half the teachers in England have had no professional training whatsoever. Even in the elementary and secondary schools under the jurisdiction of the Board almost one-half of the teachers, while recognised by the State, possess no professional certificate. Many of those who are fully certificated have never attended a training college, but have obtained their certificates, as we should say, either privately or extra-murally. I shall confine my remarks to the class of teachers who have received their professional training at a training college, as the normal school in England is called.

It will be best, perhaps, at the outset, to point out some of the chief differences between the English and the Ontario systems of training. In Ontario, the Department of Education keeps a very close watch over the proceedings of the Normal Schools and Faculties of Education. In England there is much greater freedom. Each training college manages its own affairs. It frames its curriculum, providing certain minimum requirements of the Board are complied with, makes its own courses of study, examine its candidates on the completion of the course, and grants them certificates which are recognised by the Board. In the second place, practically all teachers before entering a training college at eighteen or nineteen years of age have had at least a year of practical experience in schools. This experience is considered of vital importance by many in authority, giving, as it does, a foundation or background which vitalises the discussion of theoretic-

cal principles in the lecture-room. Thirdly, the choice of the profession is made at sixteen years of age. Indeed a tentative choice may be made as early as twelve. There are both disadvantages and advantages in this earlier choice. It steadies the work of the pupil in the secondary school, but makes success in scholarship the main factor in the choice of the teaching profession. Fourthly, all training colleges in England offer at least a two years' course. Those which are integral parts of universities have either a three year or a four year course. Lastly, the majority of the students in training live either in the college itself or in hostels attached to it. As many of the colleges were founded by various religious denominations, the residential system in these cases permits of the creation of definite religious atmospheres—a not altogether unqualified blessing for those students whose religious beliefs happen to differ from those in authority over them.

In order to understand the complicated system of teacher training in England, one must see how it has evolved. It originated in the two monitorial systems of Lancaster and Bell. Both these men wanted cheap teachers, and both hit upon the expedient of training the older children to teach the younger ones. Out of the monitorial system developed the pupil-teacher system, although the name and the final impetus for the foundation came from Holland. A pupil-teacher was a bright pupil of twelve or thirteen years of age, who was chosen for the position by the headmaster of the school. In return for the services rendered in the school, the pupil-teacher received further tuition from the headmaster during the evenings and early mornings, and a small monetary payment. The pupil-teacher was indentured as apprentice to the headmaster for five years, at the end of which time he either entered a training college, or continued teaching as an ex-pupil-teacher, to raise himself by the passing of subsequent examinations to the position of assistant master. This system is still in force, though in a modified form. The period of service has been reduced to two years, and the pupil is not now indentured to the headmaster, but to the education committee. He receives his academic training in a special kind of half-time secondary school, known as a pupil-teacher centre. Since 1908 the pupil-teacher system of preliminary training has been rapidly giving way to the bursar and student-teacher system of preliminary training. A bursar is an intending teacher who receives monetary aid to enable him to continue his secondary education between the ages of sixteen and seventeen.

He then passes an examination which entitles him to enter a training college. Instead of proceeding to his professional training, he almost invariably serves a year as a student teacher, that is, he becomes attached as a teacher to a school, and gives about twelve lessons per week under the direction of the headmaster. The remainder of his time is spent in further academic study, in observing the teaching of his colleagues, and in getting acquainted with the organisation and management of the school. For his services he receives a small salary which in effect is a maintenance allowance.

Having passed one of the numerous examinations recognised by the Board, as qualifying for entrance to a training college, both the pupil-teacher and the student-teacher may make a choice of institution. Three kinds of colleges are open to them. There is the denominational college of old foundation, invariably residential, and offering a two-years' course of training. There is the municipal day training college, also giving a two-years' course. Lastly, there is the day training college, which is a constituent part of a university or university college. The university department may give a four-years' course, many give but three.

Supposing the intending teacher selects a college, either day or residential, with a two-years' course. He will ordinarily study the following subjects:

1. English language, literature and composition.
2. History and geography.
3. Elementary mathematics.
4. Elementary science.
5. Hygiene.
6. Theory of music.
7. The principles of teaching.
8. Reading and repetition.
9. Drawing.
10. Needlework (for women).
11. Singing.
12. Physical training.
13. The practice of teaching.

Drawing and needlework may be omitted by those who are proficient in them before entering the training college, and singing and theory of music are omitted by those who are incapable of profiting by instruction in them. The practice-teaching lasts for at

least six weeks; in the case of students who have had no practical experience it is extended to twelve. In such cases history, geography, mathematics and science are dropped from the course. Specially qualified students may take advanced courses in two additional optional subjects chosen from the following list:

1. English literature.
2. Education.
3. History.
4. Geography.
5. Welsh language and literature.
6. French.
7. German.
8. Italian.
9. Spanish.
10. Latin.
11. Greek.
12. Hebrew.
13. Mathematics.
14. Physics.
15. Chemistry.
16. Botany.
17. Rural science.
18. Housecraft (for women only).
19. Advanced drawing.
20. Music.

In most cases the subjects are studied in academic fashion as continuations of the studies of the secondary school. There is considerably more emphasis placed on the practice-teaching than is the case in Ontario. The usual practice is for the students to go into elementary schools for two or three weeks of consecutive teaching at the end of each session's work. In all cases there is considerable elasticity. If a student can produce evidence showing that he has had a good training in a particular branch, allowance is made for it in arranging his time-table.

The course of training is wholly different for the students who elect to attend a training college which is a constituent part of a university or university college. In such cases the academic studies are confined to those which the candidate selects for his degree course. Education is invariably recognised as a degree subject like Latin or history. The Board, however, insists upon professional

training in the following subjects, unless the candidate can show proficiency without it:

1. The theory of music.
2. The principles of teaching.
3. Reading and repetition.
4. Drawing.
5. Needlework (for women).
6. Singing.

The practice-teaching, as in the two-year colleges, is largely done during the summer vacation, and extends to eight weeks as a minimum.

In the three-year courses the professional and academic training are contemporaneous. In the four-year courses, the professional training is reserved for the last year, that is, the student is permitted to obtain his degree, which in England takes but three years, before entering upon his post-graduate training. This scheme is a new departure but it seems to be working smoothly.

The whole scheme of training is financed by the Board on a *per capita* basis. Each student in training receives a maintenance grant from the Board, which almost covers the total cost. I have known students whose four years at the university did not exceed a total cost of \$200. For this support of the prospective teacher, the Government claims seven years of service from each man, and five years of service from each woman. Failure to comply with this agreement leads to the demand for repayment of the cost of training, or a proportionate part. The marriage of a woman teacher always cancels her agreement. No repayment is requested in such cases.

The *per capita* basis of support of the college has its seamy side. It leads to advertising for students. When a student means \$265 in the shape of a grant to the college, one can understand the anxiety for numbers. The examination of any daily paper will show how common advertisements for students are.

The professional training of the secondary teacher is wholly a post-graduate one. The pre-requisite is invariably a recognised university degree. The course is for one year, and practice-teaching plays a large part. Sixty days is the minimum, two-thirds of which must be taken in a secondary school. Each student specialises in some one branch of teaching, such as classics or mathematics, although a general acquaintance with the whole secondary curri-

culum is insisted upon. Compared with the training of elementary teachers, secondary training is still in its infancy, partly owing, no doubt, to the failure of the Board to provide maintenance grants for the students.

From what has been said, you will observe that the English system of training teachers has many excellencies, many defects. In my opinion its chief excellence is the great degree of real freedom which is enjoyed by both students and teaching staffs. Its chief defects are the method of financing the colleges, and, on the teaching side, the failure to recognise the possibility of dealing in a scientific manner with the practical problems of the school. The courses in psychology and history of education sadly need to be reorganised.

POSSIBILITIES OF IMPROVEMENT IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

BY W. J. KARR, B.A., B.PAED., OTTAWA.

I intend to base my remarks largely upon an analysis of the replies to a questionnaire which I distributed among the Public School Inspectors last January. The questions submitted were the following:—

1. What weaknesses traceable to professional training have you observed in the graduates of the normal schools?

2. What suggestions would you make by way of improving our present methods of training teachers in regard to the following particulars:—

- (a) Length of session,
- (b) Character of course,
- (c) Practice teaching,
- (d) Final examinations,
- (e) Granting of certificates.

Time will not permit a detailed analysis of the weaknesses in the normal school graduates noted by the inspectors. I shall pass at once to a consideration of the results of the second part of my questionnaire, viz., the improvements in our present system of training teachers. Let me give first the suggestions made regarding the length of the session. In connection with each I shall give the number of inspectors mentioning it.

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| 1. No increase in the length of session | 21 |
| 2. A four-months' course, largely practical; then an interval of teaching experience; followed by a six-months' course for a permanent certificate | 12 |
| 3. Extend the length of the session, or reduce the work demanded | 5 |
| 4. A four-months' course as apprentice to a good ungraded school teacher; interim certificate for one year; a six-months' course at normal school | 2 |
| 5. Shorten the course, from September to Easter, for those taking honours at normal entrance | 2 |

The most interesting suggestion here is that the normal school course should be divided into two parts, with an interval of teaching experience, varying from one to three years, between them. This scheme has some very obvious advantages. From several points of view it would be of undoubted benefit to the teacher. He would return to the normal school after his interval of experience with ears to hear, eyes to see, and a heart to understand much that would otherwise escape him. His "apperceptive masses" would be more numerous, extensive and active. The normal school masters have reason to know the superiority of Grade A over Grade B students in their ability to discuss school problems intelligently and to estimate the merits and practicability of methods of teaching. Even Grade B students, who, without previous training, have had some teaching experience on a temporary certificate, have a decided advantage over those entirely without experience. From our standpoint it would be vastly more satisfactory to have all our students coming to us with some teaching experience. I believe that the normal schools in the old days, when every student had been trained in a county model school, and had had at least one year at teaching, did more effective work than they are doing to-day.

But while all this is palpably true, there is another side to the question. These students who attend the normal schools from September till Christmas would necessarily be more imperfectly equipped to cope with the situations confronting them in their schools than are the present graduates of the normal schools after a year's training. Further, it seems obvious that the rural schools in which these ill-trained teachers would be largely employed, would revert to much the same condition as they were in the days of the county model schools, when they were filled with teachers with only three months' training. There would probably be twelve or fifteen hundred short-term graduates turned loose upon the Province every Christmas, and, if they were granted certificates valid for three years, about 4,000 schools, or approximately two-thirds of the whole number of rural schools in the Province, would be manned by them. At present over 60 per cent. of these schools are presided over by first or second class teachers, so that this plan would apparently lower the efficiency of the rural schools by placing in charge of them a considerably larger proportion of teachers with a very limited training. If such a scheme were carried out, it would seem advisable to make the certificates valid for at least

three years. To limit it to a shorter period, would make too frequent changes in the schools. A teacher would be just attaining some usefulness when his certificate would expire, and another beginner in the profession would take his place. Already, constant change with its concurrent waste before new adjustments can be made, is one of the greatest disadvantages against which the schools have to contend.

A further question arises in this connection, viz., could we be certain that a fair proportion of the short-term graduates would return to complete the course for a permanent certificate? Basing my estimate upon the number of teachers who used to attend the normal schools after having taken the county model school course, I think I am well within the mark in saying that less than forty per cent. would return. At the expiration of their certificates, the other sixty per cent. would have adopted some other vocation. Those who completed the course would be quickly absorbed by the towns and cities leaving the rural schools to the tender mercies of their younger and more inexperienced fellows.

This plan might have been successfully adopted some years ago when qualified teachers were scarce and temporary certificates lamentably frequent. It might have supplied a modicum of training for teachers in Eastern and Northern Ontario where temporary certificates most abound. However, it cannot be said that the establishment of several provincial model schools at convenient points in this part of the Province, has occasioned any haste on the part of those thus temporarily certificated to obtain a regular qualification. Those who are regularly qualifying are doing so through the medium of summer schools which the Department of Education has established at several northern and eastern centres. Model entrance standing with two summer sessions of six weeks each secures for the candidates a limited third class certificate. It is gratifying to note that the number of temporary certificates in the Province decreased by 574 from 1911 to 1914. If the same absolute rate of decrease were to continue for four years more they would be completely wiped out. During the same period the number of second class certificates increased by 544.

In view of the considerations presented, it would seem advisable to retain the present plan so far as the time of the normal school session is concerned. It would seem to be the part of discretion to give the students a reasonably good training while we have them rather than to turn them out ill-equipped by a brief training

to fill the rural schools of the Province. The efficiency of the schools is after all the main consideration. It is surely better to secure a large body of fairly well equipped teachers as we are doing now, than a smaller body of excellent teachers together with a larger body of poorly trained teachers, as the proposed plan would result in.

The following suggestions regarding the character of the normal school course were made by the inspectors:—

1. Make the course more practical. Reduce theory to that which is directly applicable	10
2. Reduce the quantity of the science of education and history of education	9
3. Have more practice teaching	7
4. Reduce the course and do it more thoroughly	6
5. Give greater attention to academic work of public school course	5
6. Less work in art, manual training, and domestic science.	4
7. Make it purely professional	2
8. Less attention to the academic work of the high school..	2
9. Stress observational work	1
10. Limited amount of practical teaching	1
11. More attention to school law and regulations	1

Some of these suggestions and criticisms are undoubtedly due to the fact that the inspectors are not directly acquainted with what the normal schools are doing. An analysis of the syllabus of courses and an observation of the work done would convince the most skeptical that the normal schools are doing their utmost to be practical. Whatever theory is taken has a direct application to schoolroom practice. If by being practical it is meant that the normal schools should show its students only *what* to do and *how* to do it, we must plead guilty to being impractical. Such a procedure would make mere rule-of-thumb workmen, irrational imitators, blind leaders of the blind. If, however, in addition to the *what* and *how* we can give the *why*, if we can give the students a knowledge of matter and method together with a rational idea of why such matter is suitable and why such methods should be adopted, we are then doing something towards making them artists in teaching. The masters of the normal schools try to make the work practical and yet rational by presenting the materials in each subject as far as possible in the teaching order, discussing the

methods to be used, and showing the psychological principles upon which such methods are based. So far as the science of education is concerned, it might be pointed out that there is not a topic in the whole course that has not a direct application to school problems. It should be understood that it is not *pure* psychology that is studied but *applied* psychology, and only as psychological data are directly applicable to schoolroom work have they any importance attached to them in the normal school course. In connection with the history of education, I should like to ask these questions: Is it not of some value to the teacher to know the educational experiments of the past and why they succeeded or failed? Is not a knowledge of the ideals of our educational predecessors of some value in constructing one's own ideals? Are not their achievements and failures sign-posts in education to guide and warn us? Surely such questions must be answered affirmatively, and such an answer is an admission of the value of the history of education as a course in the normal schools. I am quite willing to admit that the course as it stands might well be considerably reduced. It is too extensive to deal with satisfactorily in one year, and I should favour its being limited to significant educational movements since the beginning of the sixteenth or seventeenth century.

It seems to be almost the unanimous opinion of the inspectors that the course should in some way be reduced in order to give greater emphasis to some of the essentials. My observation of the work of the students leads me to the same conclusion. I should suggest, as a partial remedy, the elimination of algebra and geometry, elementary science, and cooking on the ground that few, if any, of the normal school graduates will ever teach these subjects; the reduction of out-of-school work in manual training, art, and sewing; and the abbreviation of the course in the history of education. In so doing we shall still be retaining what I should consider the essentials of an ideal academic course for the training of teachers, viz.:—

(1) A knowledge of the being to be educated—the fundamental feature—secured mainly through a study of child psychology.

(2) An ideal at which to aim—a clear idea of what we wish boys and girls to become—secured mainly through a study of the history of education.

(3) The tools to be used in attaining this ideal, viz., the subjects of study on the public school course.

The following suggestions were made regarding practice teaching:—

1. More continuous teaching	7
2. More observation and practice in ungraded schools	7
3. Organize a typical rural school, and put a student in charge for half a day or more	5
4. Illustrative lessons by normal school masters	3
5. Teaching should be done as assistant to regular teacher, under more natural conditions	3
6. Send students for observation to urban and rural schools for two weeks or a month	1
7. Set aside some normal schools for exclusive training of rural teachers	1
8. Six or eight weeks' course of observation and teaching in ungraded schools	1
9. More lessons taught to student class with concurrent discussion	1
10. Let normal school or model school teacher take hold of a lesson and show pupil how to conduct it	1
11. Advanced normal school for first class public school certificates	1

Many of these suggestions strike at the cardinal weaknesses of our present method of conducting observation and practice teaching. It must at once be admitted that this method is adapted primarily to prepare students for positions in graded schools. It is true some attempt has been made to familiarize students at first hand with rural schools for a week each session. This, of course, is better than nothing, but the practice and observation are secured under teachers whose experience is limited, whose critical ability is meagre, and whose reports of the work done by students are often unreliable. The most that can be hoped for from this experience is that the students may obtain some insight into the difficulties of managing and teaching a rural school. All the other observation and practice are secured in highly organized graded schools. The student sees nothing but detached observation lessons. He teaches one lesson each week up to a maximum of from twenty-five to thirty lessons of from twenty minutes' to half an hour's duration. He gets no training in continuous teaching except perhaps for half a day near the close of the session; he gets no training in the management of a class for the teacher is always

at hand to prevent disorder; he gets no training in condensing his lessons to shorter periods; he gets no training in conducting drill and review lessons which must occupy a great deal of his time in his own school; he gets no training in providing and supervising seat work. These conditions explain many of the weaknesses noted by the inspectors in connection with normal school graduates. They explain, too, how a false estimate of a student's ability may be formed at the normal school, for it often happens that a student is able to teach an isolated lesson quite brilliantly, and yet fail utterly in continuous teaching or in the management of a school.

Several solutions of the difficulty have been offered, but the following seem most feasible:—

1. The Department of Education might increase our practice school facilities by placing more classrooms at our disposal. The students might be sent in groups of three or four to observe continuously in a classroom for a week. During this period they should be required to assist the class teacher by taking certain lessons assigned by him, and to take complete charge of the class for half a day. Three or four weeks of such continuous observation and teaching would, I believe, obviate many of the weaknesses exhibited by our present graduates.

2. Some of these practice schools should be model rural schools near the city where the normal school is situated, and easily accessible to the students. These schools should be in charge of highly competent ungraded-school teachers, acceptable to the Department of Education, and paid a generous salary jointly by the Department and the school sections. In the two normal schools where the Department maintains its own practice school, viz., Toronto and Ottawa, there should be established and maintained a typical ungraded school. The only difficulty in connection with the latter would be to persuade parents to permit their children to attend such a school. This, however, should be easily overcome if the parents understood the advantages to the pupil of attendance there.

With regard to final examinations the following suggestions have been made by the inspectors:—

1. Oral and practical; no written examination	9
2. Should include a test of ability to manage and teach an ungraded school	2
3. Practical and brief written examinations conducted by outsiders	2

4. No academic work	2
5. Test scholarship as well as professional attainments	1
6. Brief; take normal school teachers' estimate	1
7. Giving honour standing to those with a high average in teaching and academic work	1
8. Give a supplemental in August to those who fail	1
9. Groups I and III at Easter; II and IV in June	1
10. Require a written examination on school organization, care of school property, and such details as heating, lighting, ventilation, sanitation, etc.	1
11. Reduce the number of papers; no tests in manual training, art, writing, domestic science; no final in teaching..	1
12. Present papers are too long, numerous, and difficult, and have little relation to students' future work	1
13. Graduate at least 50% of the students without examination	1
14. Leave to each normal school the graduation of its own stu- dents, thus strengthening the hands of the normal school masters, increasing their responsibility, and giv- ing greater individuality to each normal school	1

From these proposals it is evident that there is not entire unanimity of opinion on the part of the inspectors. Some advocate the abolition of examinations, others apparently would add to them. Some wish to have the estimate of the normal school masters determine the success of the candidate; others wish to have outside examiners determine it. Some demand no academic work, others demand a test of scholarship as well as professional attainments. If unanimity of opinion upon any scheme of graduating students is a test of its excellence, I fear we shall never attain perfection in that regard. For my part, I am sufficiently conservative to favour the retention of the final examinations. They are a great stimulus to industry, a strong motive for concentration of attention, a powerful incentive to organization of knowledge. In a class of nearly two hundred students, it would be very unsafe to graduate a very large number upon the more or less vague impressions gathered by the staff in the brief space of a few months. Our present method of determining the student's standing by assigning forty per cent. of the total marks to his sessional work and sixty per cent. to the final examination has the merit of giving due recognition to term work, and of making

it impossible for a student to overcome the handicap of a misspent session by making a final spurt just before the examination.

One thing that has been borne in upon me as the result of this inquiry is the desirability of more frequent meetings of inspectors and normal school men. Some of the replies to my questionnaire indicate considerable misapprehension as to the nature of the work we are doing in the normal schools. That is but natural, in view of the fact that the only opportunities we have of meeting each other aside from this annual convention are during the two days of the teachers' institute which the normal school masters are required to attend, and during the week we are directed to spend with an inspector visiting schools. During the teachers' institute meetings the inspector is usually a very busy man and has little time for any thought but the successful issue of the convention. The week spent in the rural schools does much to put the normal school masters in touch with the conditions and requirements of rural schools. But a large proportion of the inspectors have had neither the time nor the opportunity to familiarize themselves with the work of the normal schools. They have to depend for this knowledge either upon inferences drawn from the work of the graduates, or from hearsay evidence obtained in conversation with them. Obviously neither of these sources of information is wholly reliable, the first, because unfortunately the graduates fail to put into practice what they have been advised at the normal school; and the second, because the lazy or unsuccessful teacher is likely to lay his failure at the door of an unsatisfactory course of training. There seems no reason why the Department of Education should not arrange for a visit of at least a week's duration by each inspector at one of the normal schools if not every year, at least every two or three years. Such visits, it will be readily seen, would be of mutual advantage. The inspectors would be able to appreciate what we are trying to do in the normal schools, would see the kind of raw material upon which we have to work, and would understand the difficulties against which we have to contend. On the other hand, they would be able to point out to us, just where the work is inapplicable to rural school conditions, to show us the weaknesses of our graduates and how they may be overcome by proper training, and in general to give us the benefit of their varied experience with teachers. Incidentally they would come in touch with prospective teachers for their inspectorates and might make a judicious selection for particular schools.

To summarize my discussion, I should say that the possibility of improving our present methods of training teachers for the elementary schools depends mainly upon three conditions:—

1. The reduction of the present course of study by eliminating some of the non-essentials;
 2. The provision of more adequate facilities for continuous observation and practice teaching, especially in rural schools;
 3. A closer co-operation between the inspectors and the normal school staffs.
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*POSSIBLE IMPROVEMENTS IN THE TRAINING OF
TEACHERS.*

BY J. F. SULLIVAN, LONDON.

The training of teachers is a very appropriate topic for discussion before a joint meeting of the Training and the Inspectors' Departments. It is a question of supreme importance, and one in which the members of both departments have a vital and a common interest.

Those meetings serve a good purpose; they promote co-operation, and co-operation is necessary to progress. We are all working to the same end, our interests are intimately connected, and the greater the harmony between the two bodies, the higher the resulting standard of teaching efficiency. It is the business of the training school to fit its students that they may be able to conduct with the maximum of efficiency the schools over which they will have charge; it is for the inspector, in so far as the opportunity is given him, to supplement this training, and to see that his teachers put into practical application the educational principles given them in the training school. And if he notes any particular in which he considers the training of his teachers may be improved, it is but reasonable, it is but fair, that he give the staff of the training institution the benefit of his opinion, that the defect—if there be a defect—may be remedied.

That the professors of the training schools are able, zealous, and untiring is well known; that they are doing their utmost to give their students the most complete practical training possible, is fully realized; and if they are not meeting with the greatest measure of success, it is due neither to lack of ability nor to want of intelligent effort, but to various circumstances wholly beyond their control. Of these, a few may be enumerated—a too extensive curriculum, imperfect academic training of students, and what is perhaps the most serious of all, the fact that many enter the profession who, possessing none of the natural qualifications, are unfitted in every way for it, even to the extent of having no liking for it. It may be the necessity for earning a livelihood presents itself, and teaching offers the easiest apparent avenue, or it may be the intention to utilize the profession as a means of advancing to what is considered a higher calling. But whatever the rea-

son, such teachers are a positive detriment; they have their attention focused on something beyond, their work in the classroom means little to them, and, sad to say, it means very little to their pupils. In this way may we account for a large number of the failures found in our schools, failures not so much on the score of ability, as on that of inclination. It would be manifestly unfair to hold the training school responsible for these, just as it would be unfair to hold it responsible for the curriculum and for the defective academic training. No school can supply the essential qualifications which are purely the gift of nature.

It must not be assumed that there is any ground for a wholesale condemnation of Ontario teachers. Far from it. The vast majority of them form a loyal, noble band of workers, who are unselfishly giving of their best to promote the moral, mental, and physical uplift of our children. Nor must it be assumed that the standard of the profession is stationary or retrograding. Quite the reverse, for every year shows an improvement so far as teachers and teaching methods are concerned. Yet there are, here and there, weaknesses and defects, and to seek out causes and suggest remedies is a task that is well worth while.

There are various bases for classifying teachers, but for our purpose we may divide them into three classes—(1) those so gifted that they will prove successful under conditions the most adverse; (2) those who through inaptitude, or disinclination, or both, will fail under conditions the most favourable; and (3) those, and they form the great majority, who, possessing no extraordinary gifts, are honestly striving to do their duty. About the first class we need not worry: perhaps the best way in which we can assist them is to leave them alone. And about the second class it is useless to worry; the greatest kindness we can do them is to hasten the day of their deliverance from a life so uncongenial. But the third class need and merit every assistance we can give, and how best to assist them is a problem of no little importance.

The duties and responsibilities of the teacher are many and varied, but all may be summarized under two headings—(1) the imparting of instruction through the medium of a text-book, and (2) the giving to the child the training which will enable him to take his proper place in the great world, to fight with honour and success the battle of life, to become, in a word, a good citizen. The first of these two is comparatively simple, yet even here teachers are not uniformly successful. As a general proposition it may be

stated that our inexperienced training school graduates are effective along the lines upon which they have been trained. To illustrate—a normal school student is trained in the preparation of the subject-matter of an individual lesson, in its arrangement, in its presentation, and, as a rule, she will do that work well in her own school, but in what may be termed the less showy part of her work, the drill, the filling in, the linking up of the new with the old, she is not so effective, because her training in this direction was inadequate. Yet this phase of her work is of far greater importance than is the other. Nor is she so successful in the little details of organization, of class-management, of general supervision, these practical everyday tests of a teacher's ability, and the most frequent sources of failure.

The second responsibility, that of training to good citizenship, presents greater difficulty, and affords even greater possibility of failure. The successful man, in a business sense or otherwise, is he who is able to do his own thinking, to solve his own difficulties. It is the business of the school to foster habits of thought, of initiative, of self-reliance, but the boy who is being taught every day and all day long, who is accustomed to have others think for him and to work for him, will leave school neither a thinker nor a doer; success will never be his portion. And this is exactly what is happening in too many of our schools; teachers are too ready to assist their pupils; they teach too much. We find this everywhere, but not so frequently in the ungraded school, where the number of classes will not permit it. That our educational authorities are cognizant of this tendency is shown by the very wise regulation that a certain period must be set aside every day for independent study by the pupils.

The most important factor in child-education is admittedly the teacher. A poor teacher in the best equipped school will accomplish little, while a good teacher with the poorest equipment, or none, will accomplish much. Training does not, or should not, end with the training school, and efficiency should increase with experience, but unfortunately the experienced teacher is rarely to be found where needed most, in the ungraded rural school. The majority of such schools are in charge of teachers who have had training, and nothing more. All the more need that they be well trained. In this connection I must say that amongst the best inexperienced teachers I have met in rural schools are model school graduates. Is it that the model school course, short though it is,

is the more practical? Again, the inexperienced normal school graduate averages up better, especially for the elementary grades, than the inexperienced graduates of the Faculty of Education, and this doubtless for the reason that the normal school bears more directly on the work of the elementary school.

All teachers in the primary schools, rural and urban, receive the same training, yet conditions with which they have to deal differ widely. Rural school problems are much more complex; they call for the best in the way of organizing and instructing, and usually they are in charge of those who are least qualified in this respect. In addition to a thorough knowledge of practical teaching and of teaching methods, the teacher of an ungraded rural school must display a power of initiative and organization which her more happily placed urban colleague will not be called upon to exercise. Is there any phase of a teacher's work which demands a greater measure of efficiency than the organization of an ungraded school? In urban centres, the principal, an expert by the way, and usually a faculty graduate, is responsible for the organization; the individual teacher is responsible for her own class, and when difficulties arise she may take counsel of her principal. The rural teacher has far greater problems, and there is no one to whom she can appeal for immediate advice. Her one counsellor is the inspector, and he is not readily available. The position of a teacher is nowhere a sinecure, and least of all in an ungraded school. A teacher who received her own elementary education in a graded school, and who is inexperienced, must have ability much above the ordinary if, equipped only with normal school or faculty training, she makes a success of her first year's work in an ungraded school.

Some special training for rural teachers is desirable. It is argued in some quarters that our whole elementary school system is in the interest of the few who are preparing to enter the secondary schools. Whether that be true in a measure, is not our present concern, but it does seem to me that the normal school training-course is devised, unconsciously, to qualify teachers for graded school work. There are many subjects on the curriculum which can find no place on the programme of the ungraded school; the normal schools are in urban centres, and necessarily a very great part of the practical work is done in graded classrooms, and under conditions which the rural teacher will not meet. The few days the students spend in a rural school are well employed, but this

period should be greatly extended. Practice-teaching in a training school, and the sole management of an ungraded school, are vastly different propositions. The brilliant normal school student may prove to be anything but a brilliant teacher, while, on the other hand, some students who obtain their diplomas with the greatest difficulty, become immediately an unqualified success in the profession. Examples of the latter class are not hard to find; every inspector knows one or more; and many of them are so efficient that one wonders how it was possible that they should meet any difficulties in the training school. On the other hand, we have honour graduates who often prove anything but a success in the classroom.

The normal school estimate of a student's worth as a teacher is based almost wholly upon two grounds—(1) her knowledge of theory and method as displayed on a written examination paper; (2) her ability to teach under artificial conditions specially prepared lessons. Her powers of organization, of management, of supervision, do not enter very largely into this estimate, for the reason that there is little opportunity to test them. Yet it is here lies her true value as a teacher, and until the normal school assigns to the development of these qualities the importance they merit, the training will undoubtedly be defective.

That the course in the training school should bear as directly as possible on the work its graduates will have to do is admitted, and a great deal of practical work along these lines is advisable. The greater the number of subjects over which a school has to distribute its energies will, beyond certain limitations, tend to less efficiency in any one subject. The number of subjects in the normal school curriculum is too great for concentration, and without concentration there is no real efficiency. It might be well to consider if it would not be wise to eliminate some of these subjects, or, at least, to devote less time to them. If the time for instruction in the essentials is too limited, should not the less essential give place to them? If there is anything imperfect in our training system it is due to having to attempt too much within a too limited period. Either the length of the course should be extended, or the curriculum curtailed. If the former is impracticable, and, no doubt, for the present it is, the adoption of the alternative is advisable.

It has been suggested that a portion of the training of every teacher should come after she has had some experience. No doubt

objections may be advanced against this, but very much may be said in its favour. Amongst our finest teachers are those model school graduates who taught a year or more before entering upon their normal school course. They certainly derive much greater benefit from the latter course; they have had practical experience of the difficulties attendant upon organization and management, difficulties of which the inexperienced are wholly ignorant; and they can apply themselves intelligently to acquire a knowledge of the best means of overcoming them.

But if such a radical change is impracticable, yet it is possible that under existing conditions the training system may be considerably improved. Reduce to a minimum the time given in the evenings to manual training, paper-folding, mounting of botanical specimens, preparation of elaborate lesson-plans; substitute for these the study of methods and of the science of education; give greater opportunity for observation and practical work during the day; place upon the student as much as possible the responsibility for discipline, class-management, and general supervision; do not make of her a slave to type methods, but rather encourage her to develop her individuality; give more practice and less theory, and more efficient teachers will graduate from our training schools.

*THE STATE IN ITS RELATION TO EDUCATION; PAST
AND PRESENT.*

BY H. G. PARK, B.A., D.PAED., PETERBORO.

As the wording of the subject chosen for this paper makes it entirely too broad a one for adequate treatment in so limited a space, let it be understood at the outset that only the relations between the state and primary education in Ontario will be dealt with. Other countries will be referred to only for occasional illustration, and secondary education and university training will not be discussed.

In view of the fact that this is a strongly democratic age, and that we live in a democratic country, it is somewhat startling, at first blush, to find that in educational matters there is a very considerable amount of interference with the liberties of the subject—more of it, so it would seem, than in any other department of government. For example, a parent is not allowed, during a certain portion of his child's minority, to set him at profitable labour; he must be sent to school, whether this suits the parent's wish or convenience or not, and the latter exposes himself to legal penalties if he fails in this respect. He is not allowed, except outside of certain limits, to choose what subjects his child shall or shall not study, and this may prove particularly galling to him if, as is often the case, the compulsory subjects seem too many. He is not allowed to choose the text-books from which his child shall study. He is not allowed (as part, of course, of the community) to choose whom he will as teacher, except from within the ranks of a certain limited number of legally qualified persons, who themselves had to follow a course of preparation prescribed for them, and dealt with only in state-controlled institutions for the purpose. (This is the more noteworthy in that, in the United States, our neighbouring country, there is, as a rule, no legal impediment to the hiring of any one as a teacher, whether legally qualified or not, and comparatively few of the numerous normal schools are state-aided or controlled.) He is compelled to pay for all this, and as part of the community he may be penalized for failure to comply with the regulations, by the withholding of the educational grants from his school, a share of which consists of his own money.

All this we have grown so accustomed to, since it represents a state of affairs with which we have grown up, that it is regarded as a matter of course, and we do not ordinarily take notice of how absolute the state's control of education is, or of how far it is prepared to interfere with the liberties of its subjects in the exercise of it.

Of course the state would not claim such authority without the strongest of grounds for it, but it is not every one, not even every teacher, who has clearly formulated to himself what these are; and when some demagogue, for selfish or partisan purposes, pretends that there are no such grounds, we are not always ready with our answer.

It may be laid down as a fundamental axiom of Civil Polity, in modern conditions at least, that the nation which is careless of the education of its young cannot long hold its place as a unit among the world's forces, and will soon be on the high-road to decadence and extinction. Paulsen, in his work on German education, states the case rather forcibly as follows:—"Education, it must be confessed, is too vitally connected with its own wider aims and functions for the state ever to allow it to pass once more out of the political into the ecclesiastical sphere. If the maintenance and the elevation of the whole status of the nation—its intellectual and moral no less than its political and economical condition—is the task which the modern state sets itself to perform (and the state is in fact nothing but the organization of the nation for this end), it cannot be indifferent to the training of the rising generation, upon whom the maintenance of the whole past achievement of civilization must ultimately depend, nor can it hand over this function to a power independent of itself, in the simple confidence that its own aims will still be followed and its ideas respected." The younger generation of to-day is the state of to-morrow, and what they are formed into, that will the state be. Such is the struggle for advancement and supremacy in the arts and sciences of modern civilization that that nation must invariably go to the wall which fails to keep pace with it, which it will be sure to do if neglects the education of its masses. Spain, a few centuries ago the peer, if not the superior, of the nations who were its contemporaries, has so far fallen from its once proud position as to deserve to be described, as it was even by its strong sympathizer, the late Lord Salisbury, as a decadent and moribund nation. And one has but to look at the general illiteracy of its common people

to see that neglect of education has been one of the main reasons therefor. In an article headed, "Spain's National Disgrace," the *Heraldo de Madrid*, a leading newspaper, said not long ago, "Out of a total population of some 19 millions that Spain possesses, 12 millions can neither read nor write. In thousands of villages and small towns in the interior of the country no one knows how to read and write. There are in Spain 30,000 rural villages without schools of any kind. Attendance at board schools is voluntary, not obligatory. Seventy-six per cent. of the children in Spain are illiterate, and this is especially notable in the capital." Germany, on the other hand, then practically non-existent on the map of Europe, has taken its place among the foremost nations of the world, and no schoolmaster needs to be told that its rapid advance has been mainly due to its wonderfully thorough and exemplary educational system. Japan freed herself, as by a miracle, almost in a single generation, from the formation of ancient customs in which she was fettered, largely through her wonderful adaptability to modern methods of educational organization. China, much more sluggish in this regard, still furnishes us an example of the contrary, although indications now are that this will not long remain so. Russia, too, is following along similar lines, and with similar results, though her masses of slaves, freed so comparatively lately from serfdom, are necessarily less readily amenable to modern means of enlightenment.

And this education, so vital to the existence of the modern nation, must be administered by the nation as a whole, and not left to be cared for by other forces or institutions within it. Only from the state itself can come an administration that is *broad* enough to weld together the various human forces and influences within it under one national ideal, and at the same time *forceful* enough to compel even the unenlightened, whose very lack of enlightenment would keep them blind to their own welfare, to share in its benefits.

It is not surprising then that, in our case, living as we do under enlightened British institutions, this principle was taken for granted in the earliest enactments that formed any important part of our constitution. By the Constitutional Act of 1791, the people of Upper Canada, through a parliament of their own choice, had the right to legislate with regard to all matters which concerned the development of the country and the welfare of the people, educationally and socially, so that the only question has been, not

whether the state should control educational administration, but how best it could exercise this control for the benefit of those constituting it.

This problem can comprehensively be summed up as an endeavour to find the true balance between *centralization* and *localization*—an avoiding of *bureaucracy* or *paternalism* on the one hand, and unlicensed and chaotic *individualism* on the other. That this is a very live problem still is evidenced, among many things, by the prominence given to it in the recent Christmas examinations for degrees in Pedagogy. The following are two of the questions:—“The problem of educational administration is to encourage individual initiative inside a public system,” “How is England trying to do this? Discuss in detail,” “State the case for and against centralization in educational administration.” In a preface to one of his many educational publications, United States Educational Commissioner Harris says:—“It was natural that the people of our colonies should develop an almost morbid feeling against centralization. The true civil government is a proper balance between centralization and individualism, the central power limiting itself to doing such things only as the individual cannot do well, and in all cases helping the individual to help himself.”

In reviewing briefly some of the educational enactments of the state in Ontario it will be instructive, then, to consider them from this point of view:—

The legislature authorized by the Act of 1791, already referred to, took no definite steps to organize a system of primary education for the provinces until the year 1807, when an act was passed, the main provisions of which were as follows:—

(a) The establishing of eight public schools, with corresponding districts in the Province.

(b) The setting apart of \$400 as payment for a teacher for each school.

(This latter is noteworthy in two respects—the state paid the salary, and it was a precedent for a minimum salary enactment.)

(c) The appointment by the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province, of five trustees for each district, whose duties were to select a teacher and make rules and regulations for the government of the schools under their jurisdiction.

This left the mass of the people still unprovided with schools, and accordingly legislation was enacted in 1816 to the following effect:—

(a) It kept the provision of the preceding act relative to the five trustees, for each Province, but constituted them a *Board of Education* for their district.

(b) It authorized the election in each town, township, or village of a board of three trustees with authority to appoint a teacher (provided they built a schoolhouse, and could show an attendance of at least twenty pupils).

(c) It appropriated \$24,000 as a government grant to the established schools (no school to get more than \$100).

(d) The trustees, and they alone, examined the teacher as to his qualifications and morals, but no teacher could be removed without the approval of the Board of Education for the district. (The added *local power* is to be noted here, as well as the restriction on it that tended to make the teacher's tenure of office more secure.) (Note also the statutory recognition of the right of the people as a whole to education for their children.)

An Act passed in 1824 authorized:—

(a) The appointment by the Lieutenant-Governor of a Board of Education for the whole Province.

(b) The giving of monetary aid for religious and moral instruction in Sunday schools.

(c) The transference of the right to examine the teacher from the local boards to the Board of Education for the district. (Note again this latter.)

Legislation enacted in 1841 had as its main features the following:—

(a) The appointment of a chief superintendent of education for the whole Province.

(b) The establishing in each parish and township of a fund (fed chiefly from the sale of crown lands) for the maintenance of common schools.

(c) The abolishing of district boards and the transference of their powers to the municipal council (county council) of each district.

(d) The conferring on these councils the power to divide their territory into districts and levy sums of money for school support. (Note the latter as a statutory recognition of the fact that the

property of the people was held in trust for the education of the people.)

(e) The right to elect local boards of five trustees to choose the teacher and regulate school matters in the section.

(e) The granting to the religious minority the right to separate schools (subject to compliance with statutory provisions).

An Act followed in 1843 which made many changes for each Province. The chief provisions relating to Upper Canada were:—

(a) The abolishing of the office of chief superintendent, and the appointing of the provincial secretary as superintendent, with an assistant superintendent appointed by the Governor of the Province. (Note this as an approach towards the appointing of a Minister of Education.)

(b) The right of county councils to appoint county superintendents of schools, and of cities, towns, and townships to appoint local superintendents (acting under the direction of the county superintendent, and holding office during pleasure). These local superintendents examined teachers and granted certificates valid for one year.

(c) The reverting to the provisions of the Acts of 1816-24 for election of three local trustees.

(d) The legalizing again of the right to separate schools with a religious “conscience clause” for pupils.

(Note prov. (b) as pointing towards explicit *inspection* of schools.)

(e) Right of county councils to levy \$800 for establishment of a model school.

The late Dr. Ryerson, acting as assistant-superintendent of schools under the provision mentioned above, visited the schools of England and Europe and, after a minute and masterly study of them, recommended legislation as enacted in the Act of 1846. By it

(a) A chief superintendent of education was again appointed (subject to directions from the governor of the Province).

(b) A provincial board of education of seven persons was established.

(c) A sum of \$7,000 was set aside for normal school buildings, and a like sum for payment of teachers in same.

(d) County superintendents were continued—but not city, town, or township ones.

(e) Power to make regulations for government and discipline of schools was withdrawn from local boards and vested in the chief superintendent.

Among the changes made by an Act passed in 1850 were the following:—

(a) A change in the tenure of office of trustees (local) a certain number being required to retire annually.

(b) County councils could appoint either a superintendent for the whole county or a local superintendent for each township (so for each city or town).

(c) The appointing of boards of instruction for each county, with power to grant county board certificates.

(d) Board of education for Province became the council of public instruction. (Number increased to nine.)

(e) The establishing of teachers' institutes.

(f) Most important of all, as pointing towards the establishment of free schools, was a provision giving freeholders of any section an option between fee schools and free schools.

The Act of 1871—

(a) Established free schools.

(b) Enjoined compulsory attendance.

(c) Abolished office of local superintendent in favour of county superintendents (holding office during pleasure, and subject to dismissal by county council).

(d) Established high school entrance examination boards, and

(e) Established a superannuation fund for teachers. (Repealed in 1885.)

The Act of 1876—

(a) Abolished office of chief superintendent and constituted the executive council the education department, with a Minister of Education as its head.

(b) Abolished the council of public instruction whose duties devolved upon the Education Department.

(Note that public school teachers had by statute the right to elect one member of the county of public instruction—which right was taken from them when the council was abolished.)

Later legislation has, with a view to taking educational administration out of the political arena, re-established the office of superintendent of education, the holder of which acts under the Minister of Education.

Worth noting, too, is the fact of the appointment of the *Advisory Council*, the nature of which need not be gone into in detail, as legislation with reference to it is familiar to all. There is the less need to do this, as very recent legislation seems to have abolished it.

In the first part of this paper were set forth some of the more important grounds upon which the state founds its claim to control education within it; in the second there was a brief historical retrospect of the state's enactments in Ontario in giving effect to this control; in the third, and last, part some conclusions are drawn as to directions in which further legislative efforts might in the near future be profitably directed.

One of these has reference to the size of the present local administrative unit, or school section. Might it not with advantage be made larger by merging into one, under one larger school board, at least all the school sections of a township, if not all in a county or inspectoral division? Has not the present state of affairs outlived its usefulness? When legislative provision was made for these sectional divisions, as has been noted, voluntary contributions had to be depended upon for the support of the schools within them; it was natural that as a bait for these contributions there should be a promise of schoolhouses within reasonable reach of the persons concerned, with full local control of educational matters in the surrounding sections. So, too, when the late Dr. Ryerson successfully fought out his valiant battle for free schools, there was strong need for popular support for the measure, in face of the cry, for example, from bachelor taxpayers and from those whose children were grown up, that they would by the proposed measure be unjustly taxed to pay for the education of other people's children, while receiving no benefit themselves. But have we not outgrown all that long ago? Would not larger local units tend to remove some of the obstacles that stand to-day so persistently in the way of rational progress? Much that is desirable and gratifying has been done lately, and not before it was urgently needed, by way of raising the teacher's professional standing and qualifications and salary; has it been accompanied by a corresponding rise in estimation and influence in the eyes of the people of the average school section? Are we practically much, if any, nearer to the time when the profession of the teacher will be in such repute as to make it worth while for a man to take it up as his life's work, with a reasonable prospect of such pecuniary reward

as will at least enable him to rear and educate a family? It is hard, indeed, to free ourselves from the results of the low salaries, the vulgar competitions for positions, and the poor professional qualifications, of many of the teachers of a few years ago. Are matters likely to mend here, so long as the teacher's position depends upon so much that is narrow, and local, and selfish, and prejudiced? Is not something like the following, for example, found true deplorably too often? On entering upon the duties of his position the teacher must find some place to board. Mr. Jones, one of the members of the board, wishes to send her to the house of a relative in whose welfare he is naturally interested; the teacher, after inquiry, finds some other place preferable and goes there; this at once rouses the animosity of Mr. Jones; one persistent enemy can make life unendurable for a teacher in a small rural school section; he is one of her three employers, and soon, irrespective of what her merits or defects as a teacher may be, she is forced to leave and seek another position. In a certain rural school section with a total assessed value of something like \$170,000 the trustees have not seen their way clear to affording a clock for the schoolroom, though the matter has been persistently called to their attention by the inspector for a time extending over some years back. This is mentioned as a typical one among the many cases, so well known to every experienced public school inspector, of neglect and apathy and lack of liberality and breadth of view with regard to educational matters on the part of local rural school boards. While it is not claimed that wider local administrative units, with their accompanying larger boards of trustees would remove every such difficulty, it is at least reasonable to suppose that it would tend to lessen them to a very appreciable extent. Are not the larger urban boards, as a general rule, broader in view, freer from personal bias, and from all the petty tattlings and gossip that so often occupy the attention of people in smaller school sections? The discussions in the Trustees' Department of the O. E. A. will, it is believed, compare favourably, as to the intelligence of the participants, with those of any other section of this Association; but it may well be doubted whether any appreciable number of the delegates come from rural school sections, or whether there is intelligent interest enough in educational matters in the average school section to make the advisability of sending a delegate to the O. E. A. a matter for discussion.

Examples from other countries show that other nations are alive to this question. In an article on "National Education in the Encyclopaedia Britannica" there are these words with reference to the German school system:—"Thus the administrative system of Prussia in education as in other matters may be described in general as a decentralized bureaucracy. This bureaucracy is somewhat checked by the rights of patronage attaching to local boards in certain cases, but the exercise of such rights is in all cases subject to government approval." In the same article this is said in reference to the English system:—"The unquestionable niggardliness and inefficiency of many small country school boards, which had been foretold by the pre-science of the Newcastle commissioners, constituted the chief educational argument for the selection of the wider areas, so far as the interests of elementary education alone were concerned"; and again, in reference to the United States:—"Recently the tendency is to merge the school districts into the township, in order that larger and better schools may be maintained, and that educational advantages may be distributed more evenly among the people." "Most of the Southern States have the county system of school administration." Balfour's "Educational systems of Great Britain and Ireland" has in it much to the same effect—from which the following is quoted as typical:—"The smaller school boards had proved in most cases unsatisfactory; in many places (including even some large towns, where the board schools in themselves left little to be desired) the ad hoc election of members of the school board brought few voters to the poll."

It is easy for the demagogue to raise in objection here the stock cry of "centralization": but the centralization is only apparent; the proposed change tends more effectively to bring about "the greatest good of the greatest number," and this is the reverse of centralization. If the local units were larger more elasticity in administration could be permitted, to allow for varying local conditions. The local units would then correspond more closely to the present inspectorial districts, and so could be kept in closer touch with progressive educational tendencies.

(The bearing of all this on the question of consolidated schools is obvious, but is not considered here; let each proposition stand on its own merits. The change proposed here does not necessarily involve a lessening of the number of schools or school buildings.)

At least one other matter seems to press for attention here—

that of the appointment of teachers. Should not this be made subject in every case to the approval of the Education Department? Many of the preceding arguments hold with equal force here, and need not be repeated. Any measure that would tend to raise the status and influence of the teacher in the community is to be welcomed, for, at present, not by any means always through the shortcomings of the teacher, it falls lamentably short of what it might, and ought to, be. State approval of the teacher's appointment would tend to do this, and to make his position more stable and less subject to local whims, and cliques, and pettinesses. Inspector's appointment and dismissal need state sanction: why not deal similarly with the teacher? In very recent legislation, if we can trust the newspaper reports of it, the Education Department steps in to prevent the lowering of salaries that have once become established; the next step would logically be in the direction recommended.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT

RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEMS.

BY J. M. FIELD, PH.D.

To secure greater efficiency, to avoid educational waste and to correlate instruction to rural environment are problems of the first importance to a country whose chief industry is agriculture.

One of the first difficulties is with the administration. It is not easy to get or keep a good board of trustees; in any event they stand in need of training; the viewpoint of trustees is economy, that of the authorities is efficiency; we train teachers; why not trustees? It is very rare that any attend teachers' institutes, and inspectors have not the time on their visits to effect much. The greatest possibilities for improvement lie in township trustee associations, which have proved very successful in some counties. To discuss consolidated schools and school improvement two meetings in different parts of East Huron were held during the past year, and the results of one have been most encouraging. A two-acre site was purchased for a recreation park, a modern new school was built on it, a flourishing literary society was carried on all last winter, a course of lectures by outsiders was held, school gardens will be carried on this year, and in fact everything is being done to foster a community spirit and improve rural conditions. It is worthy of note that the impulse came from within, not from without. It is too early to judge of the results of the other meeting but the attendance was a proof of interest. It would be an advantage to organize townships into groups for such purposes. One could count on a gain in the time saved, if only one is able to show secretaries how to prepare an annual report.

For several years past one of the greatest difficulties in rural schools has been an inadequate supply of qualified teachers; added to this there has been no permanency of service; positions were so easy to obtain that teachers flitted from one school to another at will; it had not been unusual for one school to have as many as three changes of teachers in a year; no one could hope for good

work under such good conditions. With a change in economic conditions here and in the West, it is likely that there will, in a year or two, be a reasonably fair supply of teachers, at least for the wealthier counties; if the advance in salaries is to be maintained when teachers are more plentiful, they must not leave their positions unless for the sake of promotion. In the meantime, with better training I think there is no question but that the quality of teaching is steadily improving and many teachers, if encouraged by trustees and ratepayers, would wish to make their teaching more in harmony with rural conditions. With all this, the male teacher has almost disappeared from rural schools which for many reasons is regrettable.

More money should be spent on equipment and libraries; in some schools it is difficult to get the trustees to provide the minimum equipment required by the Education Department, and in a few others there is open hostility to a school library. If trustees could be made to see that a good equipment is as essential to a school as good tools and machinery are to a farm, there would not be the difficulty in getting them to agree to the additional expense. But let a good agent come along with a plausible story about grants, and it is not often that trustees will refuse to buy from him an expensive chart or planetarium, while they will neglect to provide shades for the windows or paint for the walls.

The library should extend beyond the school to the farm fireside; hitherto a weekly paper and one or two subscription books were all the reading material possessed by many a farmer's family; with the rural mail and daily paper, there has risen a desire for more general reading. To impart a taste for good reading is one of the teacher's more important duties. In rural districts the schools are the only medium by which this want can be supplied.

There should be a change in the exterior and interior of school buildings; they should be made attractive; surroundings influence our tastes and moods. The grounds should be as beautiful as the teacher's art can possibly make them; curving walks and rustic seats, trees, vines and shrubbery with a school garden at the back would shed over building and grounds an atmosphere of beauty and homelikeness. Within, appropriate pictures should adorn the tinted walls. Two or three plaster casts and perhaps an aquarium and book-case would give a genuine scholastic stamp to a well-lighted and attractive classroom. With such surroundings, the irksome in school life would disappear, and the picture of "the school

boy with shining morning face creeping like snail unwillingly to school" would be an anachronism.

One of the most difficult problems for teachers of ungraded schools is to find sufficient time for class recitations in the various subjects and provide seat work for the rest of the school. It is my firm conviction that in the first year of a child's life in a rural school everything that he gets in education could be obtained in an hour each day—instructions and seat work included; for the rest of the time the school is a prison to him; he loves to play; he loves to be active; and yet he is doomed to several hours of inaction. The same is true in a varying degree in the second and third years. Arithmetic is provided as busy work; the conventional idea of its importance is an excuse for much time being unprofitably spent on it in order to keep the pupils employed and quiet. Some kindergarten equipment for the lower classes and elementary manual training for those more advanced are needed; it is the duty of teachers and inspectors to persuade the trustees that such material is valuable.

The population in all rural Ontario has suffered to an alarming extent within the past twenty years, but in no county has the percentage of decrease been so great as in Huron county; in spite of this the number of schools has increased, and in some parts they are clamouring for more. With increased comforts and conveniences on the farm, parents resent the hardship their children have to undergo in walking, in some cases, two and a half or three miles to school; but, as I shall have occasion to explain afterwards, this is not the correct solution. I have two schools with an aggregate attendance of seven, and a few more with no more than a dozen. There is little incentive for teachers to do their best work in them, and pupils lack the enthusiasm that comes from competition; so the candle is burned at both ends. The play spirit in a school of that size can have little scope; recess and noon are more likely passed by the larger children teasing the smaller ones; altogether there are the same objections to a school of that size as there are in this democratic country to private tuition.

In rural schools in general there is not enough use made of the playground; during the past year, three or four of the enterprising teachers in my inspectorate, as the result of school concerts, purchased swings, croquet and tennis sets and basket ball outfits; in only one did the trustees provide them out of their own funds. When we realize how much of a child's life is made up of play,

how his associations with other children in it force him to respect their rights, and thus train him for citizenship, and how desirable it is that the hours he spends in school should be happy, we should encourage everything to that end.

Ten or twenty years ago many of the larger boys and girls in the country attended school during the winter months: in my visits this year I have met with only one winter pupil. By some it is claimed that this condition is due to the substitution of women for men as teachers in the rural schools; by others, that under better trained teachers and more regular attendance, the pupils' public school education is finished in a much shorter time. There is a cause, however, that is not often mentioned; twenty years ago, in my own county, the pupils attending a high school would not have numbered more than 300; in 1915, when the population of the county has decreased so considerably, the number at this time in the high schools and continuation classes will not be far from 900; these schools no doubt absorb many who would be winter pupils, but they lay claim to them for a definite purpose that is not associated with farm life, and no doubt directs them away from it.

So far as it is claimed that the instruction given in public schools leads boys away from the farm, except by preparing them for an examination that enables them to enter a high school, I think there is nothing to justify it: the examination consists only of such conventional subjects as the world has come to regard as the necessary basis of an education, or as the essentials of a preparation for life. By the introduction of nature study and school gardening, it was expected that the formality and bookishness of the entire course of study will give place to a study of real living nature: it is a new direction given to old subjects,—a leaven infused into old forms. It applies in great measure to the whole course of study, since it is possible to encourage the child to close and careful observation of nature through a properly directed lesson in English composition as readily as through lessons in geography and elementary science. This regeneration must come through the normal schools; it must come not through the science master merely, but through the whole staff; it is new to our teachers, and farmers are suspicious of it; the students must be thoroughly instructed in the methods and enthusiastic as to its possibilities.

But farmers do not want any education for their children, except what will enable them to compete with the pupils of the towns; you cannot impose agriculture on them unless it is a part

of a teacher's or university course; they are quite content to take Latin or any other study for its cultural value, or because it represents to the leisure class "conspicuous waste" for which they receive credit and honour as for any other wasteful expenditure, so long as it is part of the course leading up to a certificate or university degree; not until agriculture is made an equivalent with Latin, as is the case in some American universities, can we hope to see it occupying an honoured place in our public or high school course of study.

The school studies should aim at bringing out what is best in country life, in ennobling the farmer's occupation by teaching the boys that it requires brains, business ability and study; that farming is a science, that while it may not lead to wealth it leads to comfort and content which are above all. No one contemplates forcing boys and girls to remain on the farm by inducing them to pursue a special course of study. It would be a pity if all should remain there; it has been the history of the world that the best minds, the greatest industry and the highest morals of the cities have their foundations laid in the country. Moreover, if the farmer has a number of sons, he has not a hundred-acre farm to give to each of them. It therefore becomes an economic necessity for him to prepare one or more of his boys for the city, and the brightest and most enterprising sets forth on his adventures, and the city is enriched thereby.

Rural schools as they have existed have done a great and good work; with a more complete equipment, better accommodations, larger grounds, and a course of study in harmony with rural life and outlook they could do better; with a township board, instead of the present small units of organization, they could do better yet. Under a township board schoolhouses will far more likely be built where they are needed than under the present system. There would also be a tendency not to multiply schools unduly, but to restrict their number, bringing together more scholars, and thus making better classification, grading and teaching possible and increasing the interest and enthusiasm of teachers. It would facilitate administration, and the sense of official responsibility would be enhanced. The township system does not necessitate consolidation, but it would have a lean in that direction.

The whole tendency of modern industry and administration is towards centralization and consolidation; small shops and factories everywhere have disappeared, and their place taken by a well-or-

ganized prosperous industry, producing a better product at lower cost and thus performing a service to society and justifying the replacement of weaker and smaller units. So, too, the tendency has been to place social institutions upon a basis of scientific adjustments and relations, but in the creation of new social values in these readjustments, the rural school has been overlooked. The neglect which it has suffered has been partly due to its isolation, and in this Province to an experimental consolidated school poorly located and not typical of general conditions. Effort is expended in improving defects within and not in giving rural schools another organization. The result has been that when the twentieth century is well on its way the rural school is still in the middle of the nineteenth.

I do not intend to discuss the merits of consolidated schools; there is plenty of literature on the subject; Inspector Lees, Peterboro', has contributed many able articles; it is sufficient to say that they are no experiment; there is no question as to their efficiency. The cost in terms of service cannot compare with what some sections are now paying; transportation is a blessing to pupils and not a difficulty to stand in our way. Consolidated schools can bring to the country all the advantages now possessed by urban public and high schools, and can in addition become an effective instrumentality for redirecting and vitalizing country life. The question of legislation and of encouraging and controlling the movement should be taken up by the Government at once; many sections and centres are alive to its advantages, and only ask for more information and satisfactory regulations for their establishment. In many sections the second generation of school buildings is passing away; the last few years have been seasons of good prices and general prosperity for farmers; new school buildings are being erected; in East Huron there have been fifteen since nineteen-elven; the opportunities thus lost for consolidated schools cannot return for many years. The movement is, however, sure to take root and grow, and when that time comes many of the problems that now confront us will disappear.

RURAL SCHOOL PROBLEMS.

BY J. W. MARSHALL, B.A., WELLAND.

The first, most important and most serious problem is that of securing properly qualified teachers who will remain a reasonable length of time in the less favoured rural schools. Too large a proportion of the teachers of these schools are young ladies who not only had hoped, but who still longingly hope, to have their applications accepted at an early date by a town or city board.

Of this class of teacher those whose homes have been in urban centres during their own school days are very rarely successful as teachers of ungraded rural schools. In many cases to make a suitable time-table for class work or to follow one which is ready made is next to impossible not to mention the importance of provision for, and supervision of seat work. They are unsympathetic with the children because they do not know the rural homes and conditions. We advise teachers to live in homes where there are no children attending school, but such homes are too often out of sympathy with both the school and the teacher.

Even the teachers from rural homes after attending high school in town and normal school in a city accept appointments to rural schools only when urban schools are not available, and then only until they are. We must, however, give credit to the commendable exceptions, for we have a saving minority to whom our rural sections owe a great debt. The rural teachers who not only make good, but who also remain in their positions with reasonable permanence are, I believe, among the best servants the state can boast.

Just here I should like to suggest for discussion the advisability of suggesting to the Minister of Education that he divide his proposed excellent superannuation scheme into two distinct parts, making the rural schools' part of the fund entirely separate from the urban in respect both to collection and distribution. Then until greater permanence obtains among rural teachers it would doubtless be possible to allow a bonus to a teacher whose experience might exceed a fixed length of time in the same rural school even while he continues in service.

Another means of providing permanent teachers for rural schools could possibly be devised by providing a six months' normal course, or its equivalent, in summer sessions whereby hold-

ers of limited third class certificates with certified successful experience could qualify for permanent certificates valid in rural schools only. These normal courses could have a closer connection with the O. A. C., and could emphasize agriculture and rural school interests generally. Indeed, can we hope effectually to prevent the further trailing of the rural schools at the heels of the urban until some definite distinction is made in the courses at the training schools?

A noticeable relief has already been given by the rural continuation school whose graduates are not as a rule dissatisfied with rural school positions. Several young men from the Continuation School at S. S. No. 11, Bertie, have, after a course at the Hamillton Normal, all taken schools in the township of Bertie, and are among the most satisfactory rural teachers we have.

But the problem is not all on the side of the teacher in the case of the poorer schools. One of my difficult problems is afforded by a township which in the early days was divided into too many school sections. Notwithstanding the facts that many of these sections are absurdly small in area, and the majority of them proportionately smaller in school population, so that there is no life in the work of the school, very little evidence of interest in school affairs, and very poor returns for the amount of money expended, still there is sufficient of that narrow section point of view to stand as a barrier against a reasonable redistribution of the township into a smaller number of sections with schoolhouses located to much better advantage. The question is whether to make further effort toward this redistribution or to work toward consolidation. In either case we seem to require trustees with the township view. An American writer has said, "The district system no doubt once rendered a useful service. As a system of school management it is unadapted to the business or the educational needs of the present, or of the future; it is inefficient, inconsistent, unprogressive and expensive." While we are not yet ready for a general consolidation of all our rural schools we seem to need a few good examples of consolidated schools in older Ontario where the conditions are favourable.

The township above referred to is an exception, but a problem all the more urgently calling for the best solution. An adjoining township has reduced its number of sections by one, and four of its remaining eight sections have within six years erected schoolhouses at a total cost of \$56,000, so that this township with its

larger population and better public spirit is rapidly solving its own problem satisfactorily without consolidation.

The problem of truancy is gradually being solved by the appointment of township rather than section officers, and it would seem better still to have one or two officers with duties covering the rural schools of a whole inspectorate. Akin to the truancy problem is this question,—Should not the age for compulsory attendance be raised from 14 to 15 or 16 years for children who have not reached Form IV?

Let it ever be understood that no case is reported to the truant officer until the teacher has made a special effort to secure the child's attendance, and this necessitates a closer connection between the home and the school, the school as a social centre and friendly co-operation between parents, trustees and teacher.

A DEPARTMENTAL MONTHLY GAZETTE FOR TEACHERS.

BY G. G. McNAB, M.A., RENFREW.

In discussing this topic it would no doubt be well to inquire whether there is a need for a Departmental Gazette, and in what way or ways such need would be met.

It may be felt that we have sufficient educational journals and magazines published by independent sources to fill all the requirements. No doubt such magazines are of great assistance in the work of our schools, but it seems to me there is still room for a gazette that would be an official medium of communication between the Education Department and those who are charged with the responsibility of carrying out the educational system of the Province. Such a journal or gazette would diffuse that kind of information necessary for school trustees, teachers and others concerned in the administration and success of the school system. It might help "to inculcate a more just appreciation by the teachers on the one hand and by trustees on the other of the relations of each to the other, and of both to the state and to their constituents." It would further tend to create a sound public sentiment on the educational interests and duties of the people towards educational matters.

The Department of Education at present issues an official calendar, and a large number of circulars dealing with various matters. These might very advantageously be incorporated in a gazette, and would be much more readily available when required. If they were contained in a journal or gazette kept in the school library, reference could be made to them at any time. A Departmental Gazette might very appropriately explain and elucidate school laws and regulations, and courses of study, much to the advantage of inspectors, trustees, teachers, and all connected with the administration of school affairs. The inspector might be saved the writing of many letters regarding school law and regulations if these were satisfactorily dealt with in a gazette. Moreover, if a teacher or inspector had difficulty concerning the interpretation of any point, the answer to such a question for information would be available to every teacher and inspector in the Province. Again, when a new course of study is being introduced there are always

some difficulties encountered by teachers and inspectors which might be profitably discussed in such a medium. At present we have no means of discussing educational matters except what opportunity is afforded at these meetings of the Ontario Educational Association. A gazette should afford additional means of discussing important educational problems. By such a medium also teachers and school officials could be kept well informed on modern tendencies in education not only in America, but on the continent of Europe as well.

It might be said that school magazines meet this latter need, but I am inclined to think they do so rather inadequately. Moreover, not every teacher in the Province by any means takes an educational journal, whereas a Departmental Gazette would be in the hands of every teacher. Such a gazette would not necessarily interfere with the publication of other school magazines, just as the publication of manuals on methods of teaching the various subjects did not affect the publication of such magazines. The gazette would be primarily a vehicle of communication between the Department of Education, and those who assist it in carrying out the educational programme.

The expense of publishing and issuing such a gazette would necessarily be borne by the Education Department, and a copy should be sent to every school official, and also to every teacher to be placed in the library of the school. These gazettes could be kept in the school from year to year, and would form a record of the evolution and progress of our system of education. The extra cost of publication would not be so great as might be thought at first for the Department would be saved the expense of printing and issuing official calendars, circulars, etc.

For some thirty years, from 1848 to 1877, the Education Department in Upper Canada and Ontario conducted a magazine known as *The Journal of Education in Upper Canada*. It was started by Dr. Egerton Ryerson in January, 1848, and conducted on his own responsibility until July, 1850. The subscription price was \$1.00 per year, but it was not a paying proposition financially owing to the subscription list not being large enough. In 1850, by authority of the Governor-General-in-Council, the *Journal of Education* became the official organ of the Department of Education, and it was enacted that a copy be supplied to each school corporation, and to each local superintendent in Upper Canada, and that the sum of \$450 be expended annually in the circulation

of the journal. In 1853 the circulation was 4,000 copies, in 1855, 5,000, and in 1876 it had reached 6,250 copies.

Of the great value of the Journal of Education there are many testimonials, and it is safe to say that without its aid as a medium of explanation of school law and regulations, and educational matters in general, Dr. Ryerson would have been greatly hampered in founding and elaborating his system of education, and in his campaign for free schools and better inspection of schools which culminated in the achievement of his desire in the passing of the comprehensive school act of 1871.

The following extract is a part of the prospectus of the Journal of Education first issued in January, 1848:—

“The Journal of Education is to be devoted (1) to the exposition of every part of our school system, (2) to the publication of official papers on the subjects of schools, (3) to the discussion of the various means of promoting the efficiency of schools, and the duties of all classes of persons in respect to them, (4) to accounts of systems of public instruction in other countries, both European and American, and (5) to the diffusion of information and the great work of popular education generally.”

In regard to the management of the Journal of Education a question in the legislature of 1850 called forth the following statement from Dr. Ryerson: “I write the editorial articles and make the selections myself. The senior clerk collects and prepares the educational, literary and scientific intelligence, contributes occasional editorial notices and articles, and reads the proofs.”

At a later date, however, the chief superintendent finding his official duties too heavy had to relinquish the editorship, and the deputy superintendent became the editor.

In a Departmental Gazette it would be necessary that some official of, or appointed by, the Education Department, thoroughly conversant with all the details of school matters, should be editor-in-chief, and it would be well to have on the editorial staff a representative from each department of educational work.

In the Journal of Education a department was reserved for letters and inter-communications between local superintendents, trustees and teachers on any subject of general interest in the Province.

In any Departmental Gazette of to-day there should, of course, be such a department where educational matters might be fully

discussed with the salutary restriction that no communication of a personal, party or controversial nature could be admitted to its columns.

In conclusion, I believe that a properly conducted departmental monthly gazette would be of great value, and would supply a need felt by teachers and school officials throughout the length and breadth of the Province.

PUPILS' RECORD CARDS.

BY C. B. EDWARDS, LONDON.

One of the watchwords in the industrial world of to-day is System, whereby all processes and details are so organized that there is a minimum of waste, and in consequence a maximum of production.

Educators everywhere are taking a leaf out of the business man's book, and are introducing system into school affairs.

"Pupils' Record Cards" constitute one device in this system. The object of these records is to give to each teacher as the pupil passes through the grades a brief history, not only of the student's standing in school work, his conduct, his yearly attendance, and time spent in each grade, but it also presents a yearly record of his health, the teacher's estimate of his intellectual ability, his manual dexterity, and any special aptitudes which, especially in the higher grades, are likely to become noticeable.

These cards are so ruled that one will contain the pupil's record through his whole public school course.

When the child completes the public school course his card is retained by the principal of the school which he last attends. These cards thus furnish valuable data for ascertaining the average time spent by a pupil in completing the public school course. To the teacher who on admitting the pupil to her class receives at the same time his record card, the latter should be a fairly good guide as to his conduct, attendance and attainments. Experience has shown, however, that teachers' estimates of conduct do not all coincide owing, perhaps, to the well-known fact that while A and B may get along together, and A and C may work together in perfect harmony, we are not justified in assuming that B and C when working together will have the same happy agreement as they did with A. It requires judgment and charity in the teacher when a pupil comes to her with a bad record to avoid displaying an attitude of suspicion, or even possibly of dislike. If we would only remember that a display of suspicion and dislike towards a pupil is likely to result in arousing the same feelings towards ourselves we would hesitate in accepting another's estimate without testing it for ourselves.

Now let us briefly consider the other side of the shield, the bright one, where all the entries indicate a high state of perfection. This has a tendency to make for good conduct and steady effort on the part of the pupil, in order that he may retain the high place already won for himself in the school. I know of no heading on the record card that will repay the teacher's interest and attention better than the one entitled health. In most city schools the nurse or school doctor is ready to second any effort made by the teacher to find out if the child be of normal health, and if not, to arouse the parents to some action to secure this desirable condition. One might easily amplify in turn the various headings used on a card, but this you can readily see is quite unnecessary, because no space should be taken for any record unless care and attention has been devoted in choosing topics that are vitally connected with the pupil's education.

In order that these records shall be of use to the teacher, and a benefit to the pupil they must receive the whole-hearted effort and attention of the teachers. For cards on which the entries are made hurriedly during the last day of school because "it has to be done" are not likely to be of much value to anyone.

Unless a principal is thoroughly convinced of the value of these cards, and can in turn succeed in persuading his teachers that these records are of vital importance, it were better not to introduce them.

These cards when properly and conscientiously filled in are especially valuable in urban schools not only as a record of the pupil's attainments, but also as a reference in case former pupils of the school are applying for positions. Principals tell me that these enable them to reply more satisfactorily and definitely to inquiries made by business men as to the school record of young men or young women seeking positions.

These cards alphabetically arranged are kept in a case in the principal's office. A visitor calls at the school and makes inquiry for a pupil knowing only his name. It is only a matter of a few seconds till the principal has abstracted the card from the case, and can inform his caller as to pupil's age, address, grade, teacher, etc., etc.

Experience has convinced me that the pupil's permanent record card should provide a space to indicate failure to complete the work of the grade in one year and—this is important—reasons for such failure. The principal of each school should make the study of

these failures his especial care, to be followed by a report to the inspector's office where they will receive further consideration. This will lead doubtless in time to the formation of special classes for backward and defective pupils when the problems of transportation, classrooms, curricula and cost all have been solved. In some of the cities in the United States the Board of Education maintains a department known as the efficiency bureau where all such cases as indicated above receive the attention of the superintendent of schools, the principal of the school from which the pupils come, the teacher of the class which the pupil attends, and finally the pupil's parents. The object being to form the character of the child during his school life instead of letting him drop out of school and drift into bad habits or worse, with the result that the state has to spend large sums in reforming him.

We have been considering the pupil's permanent record card; let us now turn our attention to his monthly report card. These have the advantage of exciting the interest of the parent, the pupil, and the teacher. If these cards or reports fail to enlist the keen interest of anyone of the three parties concerned there is something radically wrong somewhere. A partnership of three to be successful must have the united effort and interest of each member. The task of stimulating the necessary interest, and the required effort in the other two members of the partnership usually falls upon the shoulders of the teacher, but his burden is lightened by every ounce of energy that he succeeds in getting pupil or parent to exert. These reports should be regularly sent home every month in order that the parent may be informed as to his child's work at school, and whether the report indicates that any improvement had been made. The frequency of these reports acts as a pleasant or unpleasant stimulus to the pupil whose report shows progress or the opposite. The monthly report card should show, in addition to the ordinary school subjects, the attendance, punctuality, health, conduct, effort, standing. These cards have been pretty well standardized in the United States, and we can thus profit by the experience of others. The custom of adopting letters such as E. to indicate excellent, G. Good, F. fair or passable, P. poor and B. bad, is pretty general, and offers a variety from the stereotyped custom of estimating every pupil on a percentage basis. This I know will at first require patience and care on the part of the teacher to accustom her to the change from the old system. Here, again, we are met with stern facts that unless each report receives

at the hands of the teacher her best care and thought it will fail to accomplish its full purpose.

Envelopes furnished by the board or made by the pupil are used for the reports when taken home to be signed, and those of you who have had experience in getting this done can well understand that it is no easy task.

Each side of the report card is utilized, thus showing the pupil's record for two years which, if properly considered by the parents, will be a stimulus to the pupil.

At the bottom of the card is printed the following, "The Home and the School Should Work Together for the Good of the Child." "It is important that the teacher should be fully informed as to the child's physical condition, life outside of school, and previous history. Parents are cordially invited to confer with the teacher or the principal." This request usually results in an increased interest by the parents, and experience has shown that many visits have been made to the school in order that the teacher may be consulted with respect to the child's progress. It is my firm conviction that the effectiveness of our schools can be materially increased by securing a real co-operation between parents and teachers, but you must remember, that, like everything else worth having, it can only be secured by tact, patience and exertion.

HOW SCHOOL PLAY CAN BE ENRICHED.

BY N. McDOUGALL, B.A., PETROLEA.

After listening to the excellent address by Mr. Armstrong, and to the remarks of the others who have spoken, I am sure we are all thoroughly convinced of the importance of play as a part of physical education. Indeed, it must be a matter of surprise to many of us that the importance of physical education was not long ago more adequately recognized in our Ontario school system.

A well graded series of physical exercises such as is contained in the syllabus now in use in Ontario schools, if energetically performed from day to day, must of necessity produce a symmetrical physical development. But such exercises, though very important, cannot take the place of school games, any more than games can take the place of these exercises. Both are essential and necessary in any complete scheme of physical education.

Leading educationists in this Province some years ago seem to have believed that school games provided all the physical education necessary, especially in rural schools, and perhaps there may have been greater reason for such a belief at that time than there is to-day. But with a constant decrease in attendance, and in the proportion of older pupils who might be expected to lead in play; and with an apparent decline of interest on the part of the teacher, in school play, the children seem gradually to have forgotten how to play. So that we actually reached a point in the educational development of this Province when there was very little well directed play on the school grounds and no physical exercises in the school room, or in other words when physical education was practically ignored.

Just at this time, however, the generosity of the late Lord Strathcona made the Stratheona Trust Scheme possible, and, I believe, this scheme has given a much needed impetus to physical education in the schools of Ontario. Quite recently physical training has been made a compulsory part of the school programme, and I presume more or less attention is now being paid to this subject in the majority of the schools. But so far as I understand the situation, there is as yet no marked revival of interest in school play.

Now, we know that one of the best services a school can render is to implant in the children a love for healthy and wholesome play.

There is an exhilaration of mind and a recreative effect produced by games, which are indispensable to proper physical training and healthy development of character. Children enter into games with a spontaneous enthusiasm and joyfulness that react with beneficial effect upon their entire nature. The fact also that games are played for the most part in the open air and sunshine add very materially to the good results.

From what has been said I think we can draw two conclusions, namely, (1) that play is a very essential factor in a child's education, and (2) that this important matter has been more or less seriously neglected for many years in the majority of our schools.

If then these conclusions are correct we are brought face to face with the problem of "How School Play can be Enriched," and I believe for the solution of this problem three things are necessary: (1) Persistent efforts by the training schools, inspectors, and others who realize a need for the enrichment of school play, (2) enthusiastic leadership by the teachers, and (3) co-operation on the part of the trustees.

No doubt much can be done by the training schools to convince the teachers-in-training of the great educational value and absolute necessity of school games. From my observations as inspector I would say the graduates of the training schools of the last two years show more enthusiasm in the matter of physical exercises and school games than the graduates of previous years, and I believe this is due to the fact that these schools are now giving a much more practical training along these lines and are emphasizing the importance of physical education, not simply as an interesting theory, but as something that should be taken up enthusiastically in every school. Inspectors should also avail themselves of every opportunity to encourage teachers and pupils to engage heartily in school games. I believe this subject should also be discussed frequently at the County Teachers' Institute meetings. When teachers are thoroughly convinced of the necessity for school games as an essential part of school life, and as a most important factor in training for citizenship, then they are in a better position to become leaders in play. And I may say, after careful observation and inquiry, I feel assured that without such leadership, school play in many cases will be of a very aimless kind. To be beneficial play should be well directed in order that the undesirable elements may be eliminated and the more desirable emphasized. If the best results are to be obtained the teacher, as far as time

will permit, must encourage and direct the play of the pupils. In doing so it is obvious that he or she will derive a distinct benefit as well as the children. Teachers should make themselves familiar with a variety of games suitable for the older and younger pupils, and adapted to the various seasons of the year. One of the best books on the subject which I have seen is "Games for the Home, Playground, School and Gymnasium," by Jessie H. Bancroft, assistant director of physical training in the public schools of New York city. The book contains 400 carefully selected games, and is worthy of a place in every school library. It was published by the MacMillan Publishing Company in 1913. "Play and Recreation," by Curtis, published by Ginn & Co., is also an excellent book.

But trustees should also do their part in helping to enrich school play by providing adequate and suitable play grounds and play equipment. Why should the great majority of school grounds, both urban and rural, be destitute of any equipment to aid the children in their play. I believe there should be some equipment in every play ground, such as teeters, swings, horizontal bars, grant strides, basket ball nets, tennis and croquet sets and the necessities for baseball and football. Such equipment, which would cost but little, would help very much in making the play ground a Children's Paradise.

All games chosen should be for the purpose of sport and recreation. The tendency is to confine school play to a few standard games, which though excellent in themselves, do not afford a sufficient variety of play during the school year. The little child of six or seven years enjoys games in which there is much repetition, and but few rules as in most singing games. The child of eight or ten years enjoys games of a slightly more complicated nature in which the players choose sides and in which more skill and courage are required. Children of twelve years and upwards become interested in games that require team play in which the principle of co-operation is strongly impressed upon their minds. The traits of character cultivated by good team work are invaluable in business and social life. Thus we see there is a natural evolution in play, and a considerable variety of games is necessary to suit pupils of different ages, and the other varying conditions. In those rural schools where the attendance is small it might be advisable to frequently play games in which all or at least the majority of the pupils can take part. The teacher should be able to judge in each case what games will be most suitable and most interesting.

A school recess is often a sad apology for what it might be, if under competent leadership, the pupils engaged in well directed play. After careful inquiry and observation I find that where the teacher does not direct and encourage the children in their play there is a tendency on the part of the pupils, during the recess and noon intervals, to hang about the school room and school building, chasing, pushing or jostling each other in an aimless kind of way which has a detrimental instead of helpful influence on the discipline of the school and the character of the pupils. In fact the solution of the problem, "How School Play can be Enriched," depends largely on enthusiastic and skilful leadership on the part of the teachers or supervisors.

The question may be asked, why all this ado about school play? My answer is, that school play has a very important influence upon school work. I have noticed that the children who play most enthusiastically and intelligently on the play grounds usually work most earnestly in the school room. I am a firm believer in the old motto, "Work while you work, and play while you play." The mental, moral and physical effects of well directed play can not be over-estimated. In no other way can the health, happiness and character of children be better conserved. Young people are constantly leaving the farm because they believe they will have a better time in the town or city. The rural school therefore has a great mission to perform in training the people to appreciate and utilize the magnificent opportunity which rural life affords for healthy and wholesome play and recreation. I believe every rural school ground should contain from two to five acres fitted up and equipped as a park and play ground, not for the school children only, but for all the people of the section.

It has been said that Waterloo was won upon the cricket fields in connection with some of the great schools of the old land, and I believe our school grounds and public play grounds if properly used will develop in the youth of this Province traits of character, physical strength and moral stamina that will enable them to win many victories in the great battle of life.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY W. S. ORMISTON, UXBRIDGE.

Gentlemen and Fellow Trustees of the Province of Ontario,—
As I did not have the pleasure of thanking you for the honour which you conferred on me in electing me to the chair as your President at the last session, owing to my unavoidable absence, I now avail myself of the opportunity of thanking you for this honour, while expressing my regret that I have not been able to accomplish as much in forwarding the work of the Association as I should have wished.

At the present time, when never as before, every earnest and thoughtful man is having so much of his attention necessarily directed with more or less anxiety, according to his temperament, to that momentous struggle which is now convulsing the world, we cannot help turning our thoughts for a few moments to the circumstances under which our last convention was held a brief year ago. At that time it would seem as if nearly perfect peace was pervading the whole world, for, with the exception of the domestic disturbance in Mexico, and a certain measure of political difficulty in Ireland, which was certainly troubling the British Parliament, there was among the various nations of the world apparently a complete state of amity, and no wars were taking place, or apparently any serious International complications, so that it is quite possible that the doors of the Temple of Janus might be considered to be closed.

Especially in Great Britain, United States and Canada was it considered an opportune time for genuine Thanksgiving in that for 100 years perfect peace had held sway between these great Anglo-Saxon nations, and in spite of the fact that with nearly 4,000 miles of International boundary line separating Canada from United States during that period there had been no need of armed soldiers, and that, in fact, nothing of that nature was now to be found, and the only mode one would have of knowing that “he”

were passing from one country to another was the presence of the custom house officer.

And while this long period did not elapse without many serious questions and difficulties requiring to be settled and determined between the nations, yet such was the sound judgment of the rulers on both sides that they were settled and adjusted by arbitration.

Very naturally both nations were preparing to celebrate this Centennial of the Peace in some suitable manner.

The Hague Convention also was preparing to meet with a view of further endeavouring to prevent war, and where such was necessary to have the same regulated so as to do the least damage to the innocent and defenceless.

But in the midst of this state of affairs there occurred a comparatively trifling event involving Austria and Servia, and almost before the world could realize it, declaration after declaration of war followed one another in quick succession, and the world literally trembled under the feet of millions of armed men, the roll of the wheels of cannon, wagons and cars loaded with munitions of war while the heavens are rent asunder by the roar of guns, the like of which were never seen before.

Speedily and hitherto unknown engines for the destruction of human life and property were brought in to play and the earth, the sea, the sky, and the very waters of the ocean itself seem to swarm with man's creations for the annihilation of his fellow man.

And what is to a certain extent worse, the plighted word of Nations for the protection of the weak were treated as so many "scraps of paper" whose sanctity only rested on the power of the one who wished to violate it.

Certainly we of British race can look with pride at the attitude of our rulers and the position of the Empire in this struggle, for it is in the defence of one of the weakest and one of the most industrial nations whose neutrality and integrity was guaranteed that Britain was dragged into this war.

It was my intention to dwell at some length upon the influence that educational systems and trainings of the various nations had upon the causes of this war, and the mode of carrying it out, but as there is not a pulpit in the land in which sermons have not been delivered, not a daily or weekly newspaper whose pages have not been filled with editorials and clippings, not a magazine that has not published lengthy articles, not a town in which addresses

have not been delivered on the subject, and perhaps not a meeting of any kind held where it has not been a prominent subject, I feel it would be out of place on my part in addressing a body of reading men like yourselves to dwell at any length on a subject that has been so much threshed out by men better equal to handle it, but I cannot refrain from claiming that when the summing up takes place that the war will be found to have been a war primarily, and in the last resort of Prussia against Britain, and between the ideals represented by each.

Britain stands for popular government, first, last, and foremost, the people by their representatives are and shall be the dominant body, and this axiom is now practically the accepted rule of government in nearly every self-governing people on the face of the globe. The whole of the Americas, China, Japan, Australia, South Africa, and all the new kingdoms in the Balkan Peninsula are thus governed, and even in Autocratic Russia itself the same principle is being evolved to a great extent, so it matters not whether the nations so governed be called Republics or Monarchies, the principle is the same.

On the contrary the German type is entirely different. In 1848 apparently the question of popular government received its quietus then, and exists only in name. In fact I believe it is impossible for one of Anglo-Saxon training to conceive of the utter contempt, loathing and scorn, with which popular government is looked upon by the governing class of Germany in whose eyes the people are to be highly trained and educated along industrial and military lines, but absolutely with the view that they are to be tools or machines in the hands of the few who constitute the rulers. The German rulers in absolute truth and good faith, as far as they are concerned, regard and look upon popular government as the worst form of government that can exist for the purpose of advancing true culture and civilization, and added to this their belief in their own mental, moral, and industrial pre-eminence and superiority over the rest of the world the super-man theory.

Now, when the theory of universities that "might is right" in International affairs, and that if the strong nation do not avail itself in accomplishing its own desires it is doing wrong has permeated the ruling class we have the necessary ingredients for trouble.

Now Germany, believing in herself, finding her energies curtailed by Britain, and hating and despising the British form of

government, and seeing that form of government rapidly becoming the ruling principle of the world, and thinking she had power to carry out its desires in stemming this wave of free government, was bound to take action at the opportune moment, *and she did*. As a result it is a war of "absolutism" against "freedom," and nothing more may be said.

In my own opinion, whatever may be said about "Peace," arms cannot be laid down at the present time, nor Peace granted until the world is free from the danger of any further attacks from the part of an armed tyrant, asserting that the only limit to the gratification of his desires is his power to enforce them, and this power must be taken from Germany.

One other subject calls for a few words, and that is, "What will be the result on the British Empire after the war?" It is perfectly plain that the existing state of affairs cannot be maintained much longer, and it is for some great statesman to evolve a system that will last for ages based upon the federation of allied nations bound together by ties of mutual interest, race, and government, and the sons of which have spent their lives and shed their blood side by side, and whose treasuries have poured forth their money in floods for this much loved personal liberty and freedom.

But what I wish to deal with in the balance of the address is matters directly connected with the attitude of the general public, ourselves and our duties towards pupils, our wards, and it is not likely my remarks will be at all of a congratulatory nature, for it seems to me that a difficulty lying behind the whole educational system is *a very great indifference* on the part of many vitally interested in the whole educational work of the Province.

One thing is clear, that the whole system of boards of education and school boards, whether rural or urban, is the creation of statute, and has not grown up like some of the rest of our municipal government from established customs and usages, and the fact that in the Act is inserted a clause "that any rural trustee duly elected who will not undertake the office is liable to a fine" does not seem to me to have the effect of increasing the respect for the office. It looks too much like a sentence of "act as trustee" or be fined. However, be that as it may, the general public seem to pay very little attention to what the school trustees do, unless there arises some controversial question, or the trustees in the discharge of their duties are constrained to erect a new school-house, or to add equipment in compliance with statutes, or as has

been universally the case lately, "increase the teachers' salaries." As most of these matters involve an increase of taxation there is usually for the time being at least some active interest in school affairs. As a result rural school meetings are very poorly attended, the old trustees having received their sentence usually remain on the board for a number of years. Too many of the duties are purely nominal, and the secretary-treasurer, for perhaps a nominal salary of \$10, discharges all the active duties, and his acts are probably confirmed at a meeting held.

In the smaller towns the same indifference exists, and it is sometimes a wonder to an outsider who may have an occasion to interview the various members of the Board of Education how under the sun some of the members came to be elected or appointed thereon, and, in fact, in a number of cases the electorate have deliberately placed men on different boards, not with a view of promoting and improving the educational work in the town, but have done so with a deliberate intention of preventing the expenditure of money which is absolutely required for enabling the school board to comply with the educational requirements of the day. This feature particularly takes place in smaller towns where the taxes are heavy, and the school tax especially heavy, as I have reason to believe that from 10 to 12 mills in the dollar for current expenses, together with other taxation for school debentures, is by no means unusual.

In the larger and more progressive towns this is not the case, and the electorate are paying more attention to the quality of the men they select, and also are realizing that the trustees have something to do with the educational work in the school, and are not mere bodies to spend money in accordance with instructions of government inspector, and as far as possible hold these requirements in check and spend as little as they can.

Now, it seems to me that it certainly should be our duty to wake up the public in this matter, for as school boards throughout the country very necessarily expend large sums, and in the towns a large proportion of the taxes on the education of the young, it is extremely unsatisfactory to find out from one reason or another throughout the country rather over 30% of the pupils attending are unsatisfactory in their attendance, yielding a very unsatisfactory average of less than 75%. This impairs the work of the schools to an extent that can hardly be figured on, involves enormous waste of money, and as a result causes too many of the

pupils who when they have reached the school limit of 14 years, and then quit attending, to be very far from having a public school education. These are vital matters not only for the general public to consider either through the school boards, the township council or county council, but for the trustees themselves.

While I am at this subject the question of the efficiency of the Truancy Act comes up. This Act has been notoriously ineffective, and how far the present Act as amended by 1914 will work remains to be seen. Apparently by this Act the truant officer is to be appointed by the municipality, and that the reports to him are to be made directly by the teacher, whereupon the said truant officer shall take action.

The school regulations call for monthly reports of truancy by the rural teachers to the inspector who is supposed to deal with the matter. What machinery he has is not very clear, and the inspectors claim that the operation of that regulation is practically impossible, as in many inspectorates, one case of truancy in a room throughout the district would involve 100 letters or more per month, and I am afraid the well known desire for county councils or economy would not induce them to appoint an officer where the word "may" and not "shall" is used as it is in the case of urban communities.

Dealing with ourselves as trustees, there are literally thousands of school boards in the Province, scores in each county, and sometimes over a dozen in each township, and yet I venture to say that with very few exceptions there is no intercommunication between these bodies at all who are all engaged in the same work, under the same direction, and subject to the same rules, and I may also doubt if the trustees of many sections can name the trustees of the adjoining section, while what little work of a common nature is done takes place at our annual convention.

We have discussed the matter of holding trustee meetings in each inspectorate, as the teachers do for discussion of matters of common moment, and for exchange of ideas in which those men who are more versed in school needs and practice may out of their knowledge help others not so well skilled, but in few cases has this been carried out.

If inspectorate meetings are too large, and the area covered too extensive, could not township meetings be arranged for, and have the inspector hold them some night when he is in the township in discharge of his official duties?

We know we have at Guelph a government institution from whom aid should be obtained in agricultural matters.

This matter has been taken up in some cases, and I think that our Vice-president can give us some information as to how it has been carried out in his district.

During the recent year the city of Berlin, after investigation of the state of affairs there, have shown themselves amply able to cope with the vital question of giving the pupils of their city a thorough public school education, and in doing so have struck an important note in connection with promotion examinations, for if the pupils are promoted only annually then in fact too many cases have they passed the school age before they have reached the highest form in school. It does not seem that there should be no promotions in less than a year where the pupils are ready for promotion, as no doubt the holding back of pupils who are capable of advancement has not a good effect.

Now, in conclusion, what should be the character of men who assume the duties of trustees? Am I going too far in saying that a trustee should be thoroughly interested in educational matters, able to understand and comprehend what is in the best interests of the pupils of whom he is really the guardian and trustee in a far more important matter than that of merely involving a few dollars and cents for the whole future life of some or many of the pupils, may depend on the right action being taken by a board? Ought he not be of sufficient stamina and back bone that when he has once decided that a certain course of action is the proper one, and in the interests of the school and the community, that he should carry it out to the end, and be able to give good reason for the faith that is in him, for I believe that the public at large when they realize that a man is truly in earnest, and knows what he wants, and why he wants it, and why he does certain things in a certain way, will back him up even though they may at first think he is extravagant or visionary.

Above all, public school trustees should bear ever in mind that but a small fraction of the pupils attending public schools ever go farther, and that no effort on their part should be spared to see that the school is his particular care, should efficiently discharge that task and not turn out half educated, and half trained pupils.

There are other matters of practical importance which will no doubt come before you. I might say for this particular meeting,

as you will see from the programme your committee have decided to have, two round-table conferences in order that as many as possible may take part with a view of getting at the various difficulties the boards find to deal with, and we trust that every trustee present will have no hesitation in raising any question he may deem of importance, and submitting the same for discussion.

PATRIOTISM IN THE SCHOOLS.

BY MAJOR SAM SHARPE, M.P.

What is patriotism? This almost universal instinct for which more men have offered up the supreme sacrifice than for any other cause, and which counts among its devotees more illustrious martyrs than even religion itself—this irresistible impulse that has produced so many splendid deeds of heroism and of unselfish devotion—which has inspired art, stimulated literature and furthered science—fostered liberty, won independence and advanced civilization?

Dr. Johnson in his dictionary tells us that a patriot is “one whose ruling passion is the love of his country,” and that patriotism is “love and zeal for one’s country.”

It depends upon the pursuit of common interest, the defence of a common independence, and the love of common liberties, and it is strengthened by a common history, and common traditions, and it is part of a national character formed under these conditions.

If France to-day is still a great nation, a centre of intellectual activity, and a pioneer of civilization, she owes it to the fact that her greatest statesmen, writers and preachers have always fostered the spirit of patriotism among her people.

The Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, M.P., that greatest of all British Imperialists—on the occasion of his installation as Lord Rector of the University of Glasgow, says, “It (patriotism) has become a democratic passion, and has ceased to be a privileged distinction.”

The reason is obvious—people have been admitted to a share of government—they are charged with state responsibilities and duties, and are identified with its prosperity and security, and have a personal sense of ownership or proprietorship in the state.

Patriotism has placed France in the front rank of the nations of the world; it has secured the unity of Germany and Italy. It has created and consolidated the enormous Empire of Russia, and it has preserved the independence of Switzerland, Holland and Belgium.

To what sublime heights has patriotism carried the little nation of Belgium, aptly described as a nation—not a highway? The most striking cartoon of this most unrighteous war depicted little Bel-

gium's noble King in the foreground with a devastated country in the background, and the Kaiser addressing a question to the Belgian King in sneering tones, "So you have lost everything, eh?" "No," replied the noble King, "I have not lost my soul."

Patriotism can be more easily praised than explained. Science, art, literature, music and commerce are international and know no boundaries—but war came and crumbled into dust the international character of these great civilizing forces—patriotism swept them all away, and German policemen threw into prison store-keepers who still maintained English names on their shop windows, and Britons hissed music hall entertainers off the stage who dared to sing "songs of the fatherland."

Why? because patriotism is intuitively implanted in the bosom of every child born into this world, and no amount of international intercourse will eradicate such deep-rooted sentiments.

Dr. Percy Dearmer says: "Patriotism is a salt against rottenness, a glorious spur to high endeavour; it recovers the half-obliterated virtue of loyalty, calls every man to service, and ennobles great and small alike."

But all is not patriotism that glitters. Men are in places still sordid, mean and covetous, and are willing both in Canada and in Great Britain to take advantage of their country's necessities. Some English merchants are now on trial for unlawfully trading with their country's enemy—some Canadian manufacturers and middlemen are waxing fat by utilizing shoddy goods and exacting exorbitant profits on government contracts when the whole Empire is putting forth herculean efforts to overthrow Prussian militarism. But these form only a small minority—the great heart of the Empire is truly patriotic and abhors these sordid manifestations of greed.

Patriotism to attain to its highest and most noble form must be founded upon Christian principles,—*"love thy neighbour as thyself"*—is good for nations as well as individuals—Christian patriotism is international. Primitive man thought he could be loyal to his own tribe only by warring against other tribes—but Christianity is international, and we can love our own country without hating our neighbour—indeed, the true patriot is he who believes not in one patriotism but in all—who respects other nationalities as well as loving his own.

An English statesman says, "Patriotism must be founded on great principles, and supported by great virtues." It involves

duties as well as privileges—domestic duties of a citizen to his municipality as well as those relations of his country towards foreign nations.

No man is performing his full duty—is truly patriotic who refrains from doing his share of public work and assuming a portion of responsibilities, including municipal obligations on the due fulfillment of which the comfort, health, prosperity and the lives of the community so largely depend.

“To leave politics to the politicians whether in national or in municipal work is as fatal to the best interest of the state as to leave to mercenaries the defence of its territories,” so said the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain.

But in our relations to foreign countries has this spirit greater opportunities to exercise itself. No nation can neglect its self-defence, its power to compel respect of its neighbours lest it lose that of its own people. It must maintain its self-respect, safeguard its honour, and maintain its treaty obligations.

As Earl Grey said of Great Britain, she might have refrained from entering into the European conflagration until the other belligerents had worn themselves out, and then she would have been in a position to take advantage of the situation to her own apparent advantage—but such advantage would be only apparent and not real—would be obtained at the cost of her self-respect and honour—and this was paying too high a price.

Great Britain's activities extending over centuries, marred occasionally by crimes of oppression and rapacity have, on the whole, been illuminated by deeds of courage, endurance and self-sacrifice, and her work has made for the peace, the happiness and the civilization of the world.

Great and glorious privileges belong to Britons, and correspondingly great responsibilities have been placed on the shoulders of our people. We must not flinch, but with fixity of purpose we must go forward to the great end which destiny has assigned to us.

How shall this spirit be cultivated and developed in the schools?

This is of more importance to our country than any classical, or mathematic subject, yet it does not form any portion of our curriculum, and has no recognized text-book.

Yet we must not over-emphasize the military spirit—we must not be carried to excesses by too much militarism due to the present European contest. While recognizing and appreciating the great importance to the young man of inculcating a proper national and

patriotic spirit, we must not overlook the fact the Canada's destiny lies along the paths of peaceful pursuits and not along the rugged, gory and unprofitable highways of war.

A cheap, yet useful, permanent and efficacious method of developing this patriotic spirit is the frequent use of flags on all public holidays—and to inculcate proper respect for this symbol of our country's greatness. The Manitoba people recognize this agency, and require that the Union Jack should be unfurled every day from the flagstaff of every school in the Province.

Map talks, historical lectures and essays, and daily talks on the war and current events will contribute much towards this end by bringing forcibly to the impressionable minds of the young people the glorious achievements of the British arms, and the conspicuous part it has played in the world's history.

But the training of the boys in the Cadet Corps is a method fraught with great possibilities—not expensive—yet most pleasing for the boys; it provides the means for giving preliminary training to the youth of the land.

It has met with the unqualified approval of the leading educationalists of Canada, as is shown by the following extract from a pamphlet issued some time ago, viz.:—

“It develops a boy's genuine patriotism; not an arrogant or offensive consciousness of national importance, but a genuine faith in himself and his country. Such a faith is one of the basic elements of a strong and balanced moral character. In many parts of Canada, a great many foreign boys are making a new home. There is no other process by which they can be made proud of their King, their new country, their flag, and the institutions it represents so quickly and so thoroughly as by wearing the King's uniform, and keeping step to patriotic British-Canadian music behind the Union Jack as part of a patriotic organization, along with British-Canadian boys. In this way a patriotic spirit enters a boy's heart and life.” (Document signed by)

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- Maurice Hutton, M.A.,
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- John A. Cooper, M.A.,
Toronto.
- James L. Hughes,
Chief Inspector of Schools, Toronto, Chairman.

Lord Roberts, speaking of the Cadet movement, said, "No work can be more useful than the training of our boys under the Cadet system at a time of life when they are most in need of control, and most impressionable."

There are a few methods that might be advantageously used to develop the germ of patriotism that lies implanted in every boy's heart.

In conclusion let me say that a boy without patriotism is not a very valuable asset to the state—such a boy will invariably grow up sullen, selfish, grasping and self-contained, deserving and receiving the contempt of his fellow men. And it behooves us, in every way, to encourage and develop this sacred patriotic sentiment in every citizen.

The oft repeated yet never-to-be-forgotten words of Scott describe the man without love for his country:

"Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said
This is my own, my native land?"

Whose heart hath ne'er within him burned,
As home his footsteps he hath turned,
From wandering on a foreign strand!
If such there breathe, go, mark him well;
For him no minstrel raptures swell,
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth as wish can claim:
Despite those titles, power, and pelf,
The wretch, concentred all in self,
Living, shall forfeit fair renown,
And, doubling dying, shall go down
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung,
Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung."

THE HUMAN BRAIN.

BY JOHN NOBLE, M.D., TORONTO.

The human brain, like all other brains, is a mass of soft gray and white matter, almost jelly-like in consistency; so soft that it has to be soaked in alcohol or some other hardening fluid before it can be properly examined.

The brain, as a mass of material, is of little consequence; but when the spark of life is there, when that mysterious, unknown and unknowable thing called thought, is there, then the human brain becomes the most valuable thing known under heavens among men; more valuable than gold, or silver, or precious stones, or even radium. Nature evidently appreciated the great value and extreme tenderness of our brains, because she has suspended them within a spherical shell of solid bone of double thickness, front and rear, and on either side where blows might injure the delicate mass within.

We know the brain to be the seat of thought, memory, reason. The ancients believed the heart was the seat of thought, hence the expression, "a good-hearted" person, etc.

Man, in proportion to his body weight, has more brain substance than any other animal. The average weight of the brain of the adult man is $49\frac{1}{2}$ ounces, a little over 3 pounds; that of the adult woman about 44 ounces, $2\frac{3}{4}$ pounds. The brains of an idiot seldom exceed 23 ounces in weight. Broadly speaking, the larger the brain, the greater the mental capacity, but a large man or woman may have a small brain, and vice versa.

In the brute creation, quadrupeds have more brains than fishes, fowls or reptiles. "As wise as a serpent" is a misleading expression. A serpent has no wisdom; it can be taught nothing; even though in captivity for years, it never knows its caretaker from anybody else. The elephant, the largest and most intelligent of quadrupeds, has a brain weighing from 8 to 10 lbs.; while the whale, the largest of fishes, and ten times the weight of an elephant, has a brain weighing only 4 or 5 lbs. Why, it may be asked, has the elephant ten times as much brains, according to its body weight, as a whale? The answer is simple; the elephant needs brains, must have brains or must become extinct.

Every living thing has two great functions to perform—get a living and pro-create its kind. A plant gets half its living through its roots from the earth, the other half through its leaves from the atmosphere; it remains stationary; it needs no brains, and therefore has none. It has none of the five senses of animals (except the sensitive plant which seems to have the sense of touch).

With animals it is different. An animal is a plant turned outside in. The two sources of nourishment, its roots and its leaves, are inside the animal. The air is drawn into the body and forced out again automatically; it requires no brains to know how to breathe: (but it requires a highly developed brain to know enough not to breathe bad air).

The root-food is stored for the time being within the body of the animal, and this food has to be found by the animal itself. Hence, the animal must have a means of locomotion, and if it moves, it must have one or more of the five senses, to direct it towards its food, and also to protect it from danger. But one or more of the five senses would be of no service to the animal if there was no brain for the sensations—new items, so to speak—to go to. And the more difficulty the animal has in getting its food, the more brains it needs, and the more brains it has.

The elephant requires a large amount of food, and a careful selection of the same; he has often to travel far, his means of locomotion is slow, and his roadway is often rough and beset with difficulties: he needs his brains.

On the other hand, the whale moves quickly, almost without effort: he does not need to select his food because he does not chew it: all he has to do is to catch and swallow; his digestive apparatus does the selecting, uses what it needs and passes along the residue. The whale needs little brains, and has little. And further, the land animal has to bring forth its young, to feed and protect them: whereas the fish lays its eggs, and that is all; little brains required.

I mention these things to show that nature allows no superfluities in the brute creation; an animal has brains according to its needs, no more, no less. If the elephant were so placed that it would not need to think, it would soon have as little brains as the whale.

Any portion of the human body, the brains included, that is not used much soon becomes smaller and weaker, and if never used will disappear entirely. Thus, if we continue to feed children on soft foods as at present, in a few centuries the human race will

have no teeth; if we continue to make studies easier we must not be disappointed if the child's brain capacity comes down to its necessity. Luxury and brains are antagonistic. In the rise and fall of nations, luxury and not adversity, was always the cause of the fall. The present war and its consequent hard times, has done more to stimulate brain force in Canada than anything which has occurred since the howl of the wolf sent a shiver through the early pioneer in his little log cabin in the woods.

The brains of great thinkers weigh more than the brains of ordinary men. Cuvier, Dr. Abercrombie, Dupuytren, Robbie Burns, Napoleon, and many others, had brains weighing up to 4 lbs. On the other hand there are some exceptions to the above rule. Some brilliant men have had brains below the average in weight.

This may seem to you a grewsome subject. But science knows no sentiment; it deals only in facts. The human brain increases in weight rapidly up till seven years of age (that is before the crabbing influence of school life sets in), then less rapidly each decade until the age of forty; after that, the average man's brain loses about one ounce in weight for every ten years until his death. Is this why most, not all, great men have made their mark in the world before reaching forty?

Then the great object of our whole education system, of which we as trustees are the ways and means committee, should be to increase the weight of every pupil's brains.

In order to obtain the best results an educator should have control of the feeding, the clothing, the housing, and the exercising—physical and mental—of the pupil. The clothing and nourishing (supplying of liquid food and solid food) of children should devolve entirely upon the parent or guardian. Boards of education should not undertake these things. That would be paternalizing the state to too great an extent. But it is the legitimate duty of the state to see that the children have proper housing, proper air-food and suitable physical and mental exercises during school hours, and as many other hours as possible, before 9, after 4, and holidays also.

Air-food is responsible for over half the body-weight. Bad ventilation is starvation in its worst and most disease-provoking form.

We cannot make brains, but we can develop what is there already. The Science of Eugenics, another grewsome subject, would teach us that we should select those of the opposite sex whose offspring would be most likely to have brawn and brain, and allow them,

and none but them, to pro-create. This is done in the breeding of lower animals. Are human beings of less importance?

Here, again, sentiment takes science by the throat and so the matter ends. Yet it does seem strange that imbeciles, criminals, the insane, the deaf and dumb, dipsomaniaes, the blind, those affected with transmissible disease—consumption, syphilis, etc., the crippled, the deformed, in short, the floatsam and jetsam of the human race, should all be allowed to marry and multiply, as freely as if they were all athletes and philosophers.

No wonder our prisons, our hospitals, our sanitariums, our "Homes" for this, that, and the other, our "Institutes" for the blind, the deaf and the dumb, our law courts, our police stations, are all full to overflowing; while the honest taxpayer is groaning under an ever-increasing burden for the maintenance of all these necessities; we must look after these unfortunates; we dare not neglect them, even for our own safety.

And another burden for the taxpayer is looming on the horizon—special classes for backward pupils, and for pupils whose mentality is subnormal. This burden, we, the ways and means committee, are to take over in toto; feed them, house them, and give them special education on farms which we must purchase, equip and manage for the benefit of the pupils. We must pay farm help, caretakers, specially qualified teachers, also nurses and doctors when required.

All of this, in my opinion, should be done; it would pay in the end to do it, but the Government, not the school boards, should do it. The first duty of the Government is plain—stop, as far as possible the pro-creation of undesirables. Our immigration laws forbid the entrance of such. Why should we allow those we have to multiply?

I consider it the duty of every member of our Association to go to his representative in the local legislature and urge upon him that such legislation be passed as will have the desired effect in this matter.

Let us now glance for a moment at the functions of the brain, what it does and how it does it. The gray matter, nerve cells, is supposed to be the seat of thought; the white matter is the path or track through which sensations (news) goes to the brain proper, and through which instructions, commands, go out from the brain to all parts of the body. Outside the brain these news' carriers, telegraph wires, if you will, are called nerves. To give an illus-

tration: you tickle a mule's heel; a message goes to the mule's brain; a return message goes to the mule's leg which moves the mule's foot, and you see the result. I would like to warn any would-be experimenters that these messages travel very quickly.

When the brain receives a message through any of the five senses, it does not always have the return message ready; the process of getting it ready, is called thinking, the work of the gray matter apparently. As to what thought is and how it is transmitted through nerves, we know nothing; it is a sealed book.

When brain grows, that is, increases in weight and power, it follows the same laws as does the right arm of the blacksmith when it grows and increases in power.

When any organ, any part of our bodies, the heart, the lungs, the stomach, the extremities, or the brain works hard, it becomes tired, exhausted and cries out for food. And the head office, the brain, instructs the commissariat department, the heart and arteries, to rush in more blood; hence growth. If brain is to grow it must work. A child's brain works more or less, according to the amount of the news the said brain receives through one or all of the five senses. Hence, young children should be educated by means of concrete objects, and not through abstract ideas represented by words as at present.

Fröbel, a hundred years ago, recognized this fact and founded the best educational system the world has ever seen, the Kindergarten. Dr. Montessori, a lady teacher in the Department of Psychiatry in the University of Rome, has thought out and put into practice an elaborate system of cultivating the five senses at the same time improving the child's control over its own muscles. The Montessori methods are recognized by our Education Department.

Then our whole educational system simmers down to one object—get human beings to think. One man in a thousand will blaze a trail; the other nine hundred and ninety-nine will blindly follow in the trail, without stopping to think whether the blazer is right or wrong. The great bulk of the human race is obsessed in mental laziness.

Napoleon blazed the trail to Moscow and 400,000 men blindly followed him to failure, disgrace and death. A half insane would-be Napoleon of Europe to-day has blazed an imaginary trail to the conquest of the world, and four million human dupes are blindly following him to personal and national failure, destruction and

death. Get the student to think, that is the gun that every true educator should keep his eye on. A labourer would rather dig hard in a ditch for two hours than think for two minutes on how to keep the ditch straight. A typewriter would rather rattle off six pages of copy than think for six seconds where a paragraph should end. It is easier to believe than to think. Hence, the Brigham-Youngs, the Mrs. Bakers, the Joe Smiths, the Lydia Pankhursts, and many more half crazy fakirs get followers and money by the tens of thousands.

Recorded history is as yesterday compared with the records, true records, revealed by geology and its kindred subjects.

Geology, backed by the present day brain power of man, tells us that the earth was once a revolving ball of super-heated gases, hurled into cold ethereal space from the bosom of that mother of planets, the sun.

The material of which rocks and metals are composed cooled first, forming an uneven, crumpled, crust over the surface, with a seething mass within, and a cloud of steam suspended in air without. The cooling process went on; the steam became water and filled the hollows, thus forming the oceans; the higher portions became continents. The mystery of mysteries then occurred. Life came upon the earth—first vegetable, then animal life. Vegetable life must have come first, as animals can only live when there are plants for them to live upon.

Animals appeared first on the fat spots of the earth, that is, where the climate and the vegetation were most favourable. Man was one group among many groups of animals; he was an insignificant creature, without means of either offence or defence; he did not need either; he picked berries from the vines, and fruit from the trees, and took honey from the bees, and eggs from the birds, and roots from the earth.

If those conditions had continued man would never have developed, he would have remained a nonentity. But as time passed animals became more numerous; man among the rest. And man soon found himself confronted by large and fierce animals, much his superior physically. He was no match for them in contest, or in a race for safety.

Now, it was up to man to either use his brains or become extinct. He chose the former; he began to think, because he had to. The same is true of man to-day. Stern necessity makes him think,

nothing else will. Where do we find our great man and our great minds? Not under azure skies of the sunny south where food may be had for the taking, clothing is a superfluity and housing unnecessary. No, we get great minds in the sterner climes where man must work and think, or starve and freeze.

But let us return to our primitive man. He bethought himself to climb into the tree's branches and make for himself and his partner and little ones a bed. But his enemies followed him there. Then he broke off branches and belaboured his foes; that was his first act of defence. When they were gone he thought further; he came down, found a rough stone and rubbed the end of his stick upon it, till it was sharp; that was the first bayonet.

He saw them coming and fled to his den again, this time he jabbed them in the eyes and scored another victory.

Ages passed and the war went merrily on; man's brains pitted against the prowess and cunning of all other animals. Brains won. Man killed, trapped, tamed, conquered every animal known, except one, the smallest of all animals, and he is in a life and death struggle with it to-day—the microbe of disease.

In my humble judgment man is making a mistake; he is trying to kill the microbe; he should rather try to starve it out. A disease germ will have nothing to do with a person in good health.

On which side of the fight are we, the school trustees? Are we with the microbe or against it? Every badly ventilated class room, every improperly heated class room is a Gatlin gun firing in favour of the microbe and against humanity. Every person who contributes in any way to the ill health of innocent little children is as much a baby-killer as the brutal Germans that crossed the North Sea and threw cannon balls into a summer resort on the British coast.

But let us return to our primitive man. His enemies increased, and his brains had to come to his aid again; he was compelled to think. He used the inner bark of certain shrubs to fasten a stone on the end of his club, this was of great service to him.

But a new enemy appeared in the person of his fellow man; war is as old as the human race; the strong drove out the weak. These were pushed farther from the equator into the colder regions. Now, man was up against another brain-producing dilemma; he had to have clothing and housing.

But about this period man made one of the greatest discoveries the world has ever known. It came about in this way. One day

one of our forefathers had heard that a great war was coming on; he wanted to have his stick extra sharp; so he rubbed very hard; and the day was very hot; then suddenly the whole thing burst into flame. Man had discovered fire. This hidden secret of nature did more to revolutionize the progress of man than the harnessing of water-falls, the harnessing of steam, the harnessing of that subtle fluid electricity, and all other of the tens of thousands of discoveries and inventions made since. He now had a new food for thought, and a new food to eat, cooked meats, etc.

From this time forward, man's triumphs over the brute creation, and over the forces of nature were comparatively easy. Heat is the greatest power in nature. The higher critics, the great high critics, say to the simple believers, "If God has always been the friend of man, why did He not reveal the secrets of nature in the beginning?" The unanswerable answer is evident, "If God had done so, man would never have developed, he would have remained an insignificant animal among animals," or perhaps become extinct.

And let me say, in conclusion, here is the foundation stone, a solid rock bottom for the educator to build upon. Encourage, excite, stimulate the student to overcome his own difficulties. It is the only way to make his brains grow.

ORGANIZING FOR MANUAL TRAINING AND DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

BY EDWARD SMYTH, BERLIN.

The board must have definitely before it, as far as possible, the particular needs of the city or community to be served. Having this objective, then they should make provision to attain the object aimed at—at no time must it be forgotten that manual training is for education—not for turning out mechanics.

The personal story of the work of organizing in Berlin.

Berlin as an industrial centre found difficulty with its young men in retaining them at the high school, also in the choice of a vocation other than the high school provided. The choice of a vocation is a most important step in the life of our youth. Question, "What should it be?" remained unanswered. The board appointed a committee to look into the merits of manual training and domestic science. Then arose the question, where shall we find the information we are looking for? There were at that time only the school at Woodstock and the Normal School at Toronto. The committee decided to visit Woodstock and get all the information possible. The result of that visit convinced the committee that manual training was what we wanted to keep up the interest of our young men in high school work.

The question was placed before our people where it met with considerable opposition. It took some time to convince the people. Finally we decided to establish a school for manual training and domestic science in connection with the Berlin High School. A deputation visited Toronto and other places to gather information regarding the size, lay out and cost of such a school. Finally plans were prepared and approved by the Department of Education, and the work of building was proceeded with.

DESCRIPTION OF MANUAL TRAINING ROOMS.

1st Floor.—Machine shop, 29x33; forge room, 16x27; wash room, 9x16; foul air room, 8x25, and a small supply room.

2nd Floor.—Wood-working room, 30x32; drawing room, 16x28; stock supply room, 16x8; wash room and cloak room, 10x16.

Equipment.—Machine shop, 24 vices; 3 forges; 1 drill press; 1 power hack saw, band saw, emery grinder, motor, etc.

Wood-working shop, 20 benches equipped, saw, plane, chisels, squares, rule, gauge, etc., etc. All the tools necessary for wood-working. The total equipment for iron and wood-working totalling about \$2,800.00.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE DEPARTMENT.

Kitchen, 31x37, fully equipped, 2 gas ranges; 24 table stoves, and all the necessary up-to-date appliances for the kitchen.

A dining-room 17x18 was provided. This room is neatly furnished—table chairs, linens, cutlery. A cloak-room has been provided, 17x18, with lavatory. The cost of equipment in this department being about \$1,200.00.

The time allotted to domestic science per week is 14 hours to collegiate students; 6 hours to public school students; 2 hours to separate school students. The duration of classes, 2½ hours morning and 2 hours afternoon. 200 students pass through this department per week.

MANUAL TRAINING.

The time allotted to manual training in morning classes 3 hours; afternoon classes 2 hours. 215 students pass through this department per week. About 90 of these students were from the public and separate schools, and 125 from the collegiate. I might here explain that before our city council would grant the money to erect the school we had to enter into an agreement to accept students from the advanced classes of public and separate schools (personally I think this is a mistake, as we cannot devote sufficient time to collegiate work. I think the primary work should be taken up in the public schools).

COST.

The cost of erecting the building and equipment was \$30,000.00, but in this building we provided four extra class rooms for the regular school work which would reduce the cost.

RESULTS.

The results arising directly and indirectly have been very satisfactory. The boys have taken up the work earnestly and are anxious to continue their studies so that they may have the oppor-

tunity of attending the manual training classes. It has been the means of interesting many a boy, and of holding his interest who previously had lost interest in high school work, it has brought out and developed the best in the boy. The work of some of the students is surprising. Only this week I had the pleasure of examining a writing desk made from oak by a student of the first year. This piece of work would do credit to a skilled mechanic.

It was said by some that the adding of manual training to the boys' other studies would hinder his progress in regular school work, but the very opposite has been the result. It has been found that the boy who has taken the manual training course usually stands at the head of his class in regular school work.

In the domestic science department the same excellent results have been accomplished. The girls have been anxious to discover and appropriate the secrets of this department, and the success which they have had is very pleasing as some of the board can bear testimony to the very savoury dishes which they have prepared. It is quite evident that this department is fully appreciated by girls, and many older ones regret that they had not the opportunity to study domestic science, and are anxious to take advantage of the night classes.

In conclusion I might mention that in connection with the manual training school we provided a large assembly hall with a stage neatly fitted up; this hall has a seating capacity of about 300. Here entertainments are given by the students of the literary society to which friends of the school are invited. This helps to keep the public interested in the school. It is the unanimous opinion of our principal and the staff that the money spent on this school has been a good investment, and of great educational value.

HOME SCIENCE DEPARTMENT

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY MISS ETHEL M. EADIE, TORONTO.

What I have to say may not be called an address, but rather a resumé of some recent comments on Household Science work.

We have come to a time when to rest on our oars would be disastrous. Few people now seem to argue that work with the hands cannot be educational. The London branch of the Educational Handwork Association emphasizes the value of many points set out in a report of a conference on the teaching of handicraft in London elementary schools. This report is found in "Education" (an English magazine) for Nov. 28th, 1913. It is here stated "the claim of handwork for a permanent place in the school curriculum is, we believe, soundly based upon the development of the child's instincts, interests, and natural impulses, upon common sense and every day experience." Ruskin said long ago, "It is only by labour that thought can be made healthy, and only by thought that labour can be made happy."

From the report of the Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education, we learn that there is an increase of interest in education, and that the most advanced are least satisfied. It says (Vol. I, p. 5), "Perhaps in Germany, more than in any other country, we were impressed by the apparent solidarity of the feeling of citizenship, and by the fact that education did not seem to be planned or cherished as a means whereby the individual got ahead of other individuals. Education appeared to us to be regarded as a great national service whereby all the individuals are being trained towards ability for their respective occupations in the interest of the state. The personal power and well-being of the units of the community are looked after for the sake of the state."

How can we best keep before us this aim in our plan of a sequence of work under Household subjects? Dean Bailey, of Cornell University, said at the American Home Economic Association meetings

in 1913, "I will not grant that Home Economics is a woman's movement. It is a movement for humanity."

Some one has said, "We are concerned with the means of life rather than with life itself," and it seems as if the Household subjects teacher has grave temptations here. In the Technical Educational Report, p. 15—"Making homes is much more than building houses and providing furniture, food, clothing, and other things. It is creating a temple not made with hands, as a place of culture for the best in human life." We are aiming, I take it, to eliminate waste labour, and even the wasting of life itself. Also we are aiming at an intelligence as to the duties of the "Sanitarian" of the home, and a simplification of meals adapted to meet the needs of all people. In the Dec., 1914, *Journal of Home Economics*, notice is made of "The Two-Dish League" in Paris. Each member promises to have only two dishes at a meal.

The efficiency expert would have us eliminate wasted human effort by use of better tools, labour-saving devices, and by a knowledge of motion study, standard practice and scientific management. In Mrs. Frederick's book *Good Housekeeping*, we find these principles applied. Let us beware of considering these more than means to the end of happy healthful living. In "Education and the Larger Life," by C. Hanford Henderson, in the chapter on organic education, we find this warning—"Our modern man may be a little dull of hearing, and rather hard to talk to, but with the microphone he can hear a fly walk. He is a trifle short-winded and finds running fatal, but why should he want to run when the 'elevated' shoots him over the city and the 'limited' over the country? All along the line of modern human defect we find the substitution of some mechanical excellence. The modern man has lost his wholesome appetite but gained a French cock. He denies himself fresh air and pure water, but he has the sanitarium and the doctor. The substitutes are poor trinkets to be offered in exchange for human power and beauty and excellence."

We may be side-tracked on countless attractive schemes for excellence in a particular avenue, and lose our way to the open field of wholesome life. An English teacher in housewifery said, "A good duster may be a most uncomfortable person to live with."

What teaching will have as its result, in all girls, ability in the business of being a woman? In the Technical Education report, p. 16, we read, "The need of the times is education to qualify all to achieve satisfaction through labour and service and good will."

H. W. Dresser, in his book on Human Efficiency, has a chapter on the value of human work. I have abbreviated part of this suggestive chapter. There he says, "Undoubtedly no condition is so complex as that presented by the home. Would it be possible to make a study of all housewifely activities and draw up a schedule so as to save time, material, and money? At first thought the undertaking seems wholly impossible, since the housewife must do forty things in a day, and, knowing from long experience how everything should be done, she is likely to resent a plan which seems intended to get more work out of her. Yet the housewife who believes she has learned the best way would admit that she acquired the art slowly, and that there is still room for improvement. Surely no scientific student of these problems would wish to get more out of the housewife, but would see her less fatigued and happier at the close of the day, with more accomplished. If by taking these matters under consideration she is able to be a little more patient, less nervous, more contented, there will be something gained. A calm interior will thus become the starting point for better planning. The thoughtful housewife may object at first to the vacuum cleaner or the fireless cooker, for fidelity to the good old ways is strong. The alert mother enlists the services of children and others when they are passing empty-handed and can easily carry needed articles to another room. She posts a list of repairs and other services to be attended to, at leisure, by the father. She is not doing forty things in a day but just one thing with many branches, each one of which is contributory. Efficiency is not merely a question of capacity and training. Where there is love and interest there is a way. To have a scale of values revealing an end that is worth while is to be superior to time, and to many other conditions, intent on realizing the ideal."

What is being done for women for this most difficult profession of home-making? Technical Education Report, p. 452—"For girls in most English cities centres are provided for domestic economy. Three divisions of this work are offered—cookery, laundry work and housewifery. Girls of twelve years are eligible to these classes. The work varies with the need of the particular districts in which the centres are located. Practical utility for the girls in their homes is a dominant factor in shaping the courses, (p. 453) "Below the grades doing work in centres or shops, there is often a well developed course in handwork; paper folding, cardboard construction, wire-work, cord-work, and parcel tying are often

found. Clay modelling is occasionally employed, and knitting and needle-work are very common in the lower grades." In Switzerland (p. 1208)—"Elementary housewifery, hygiene and domestic economy for girls are taught in the primary, supplementary and rural secondary schools. The object is to train girls for their future duties. The supplementary school begins after the age of twelve. . . . Sewing is taught in all the elementary schools, and with the exception of only parts of the Forest Cantons, it is everywhere a compulsory subject. The course includes all kinds of knitting, stitching, mending and cutting out. The time given to it varies from a minimum of two hours to a maximum of eight hours per week. Usually it occupies from three to five hours per week during six years."

Dr. Sykes, of Columbia University, says (p. 1321): "The adjustments that have taken visible form in the work we call manual training, domestic science, domestic art, and so on, at first seemed to be merely a demand for 'the practical' in education. They are now seen to be a clearer recognition of right method in education, of the facts and values of child development, and of the shortcomings of our educational system. In the public school system, even where it is best organized and administered, approximately one-half the children who enter are scholastically dead at the end of the seventh grade, one-third enter high school, and one-twentieth actually graduate. Education, real education, it should never be forgotten, is not expense but investment. . . . The true basis for the new education in the elementary school lies in the nature of child thinking. Child thinking is essentially objective. It prefers seeing and handling a thing to mere talking about it. . . . The child thinks most when he plans what he is interested in doing. It is necessary first of all to accustom boys and girls in the elementary schools to think about the environment in which they live, about the things that are useful, helpful, interesting in that environment. Any system of industrial education that starts any other place except in the elementary school will not start at the fountain head. By the seventh grade, normally twelve years old, you can begin to have classes that specialize on a particular line—that is to say, bench work or cookery or dressmaking or needlework, etc."

We seem to have got the laboratory method into the university first, and now we must go down the grades with it, not for the purpose of research, but for acquaintance with environment, and not map out work merely that leads to the university.

Dr. Hammerschlag, of Pittsburgh, defines the difference between work and education by saying that the thing a child is compelled to do is usually waste educationally, but if he craves work it is educational. Activities ought to be continuous, therefore he does not like the proposition which deals only with the fourteen to eighteen year period. He would begin at the kindergarten to make the child use its hands, and get the sense of form, and of color, so that it could begin to express itself; he would continue some forms of those activities all through its schooling through the university. He says further, "If you in Canada are going to do good things in education you must keep constantly in mind the man and the woman, and not the subject."

A school in Salt Lake City is reported as emphasizing the home as the unit of activity, and art as the handmaid of utility. To quote "We surround the child with the thing that will stir him up to do something that we want him to do, and let him come out himself rather than pull him out."

Principal Weaver, of Boston, says, "Teaching a girl to make a loaf of bread, and calling it a lesson does not work. She has to make it till she can do it like playing the piano while talking over her shoulder; you can't teach it like a lesson and then go on to the next."

At the annual meeting, 1913, of an Association of Teachers of Domestic Subjects, in England, the subject, "How the Labourer Lives, and how School Kitchens can Help," was discussed. A man remarked, "A cookery lesson should not be considered complete unless a meal was prepared, eaten and enjoyed." Another man said at the present time he thought a great deal too much was attempted to make the work very satisfactory. As an old science teacher he was quite overwhelmed with the size of the cookery syllabus. It would be better to confine themselves to three or four subjects, and teach them time after time until the children get absolutely acquainted with them. "Bread-making, stew and soup making, should be made a great deal more of than they were, and with regard to soup making, more use should be made of vegetables. Bread-making and soup-making ought to have a course to themselves."

At the eighty-third annual meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, in Birmingham, Sept., 1913, the president of the science section, in his address, gave a report of questions sent out re education, and a summary of replies.

Question VII, "Do you consider the curricula of (a) primary, (b) secondary schools under your authority as overcrowded? If so, can you indicate the directions in which you consider there could be a reduction. Remarks V, under primary school, "Yes, teachers fail to look on education as *one* thing, and put the various phases of it in water-tight compartments; this is the tyranny of the time-table; one would like to say: teach what you like, when you like, and how you like." Remark II, under secondary schools—"Yes, a tendency to widen knowledge at the expense of depth."

The science committee of the Association of Teachers of Domestic Subjects received an interim report from the educational sub-committee upon the teaching of domestic subjects in elementary schools. To quote only a little of this (Education, Oct. 31st, 1913)—"The committee desire to emphasize the following general principles: (a) the study of housecraft should form an essential part of the curriculum in girls' schools of all grades; (b) the teaching of housecraft should be a means of intellectual training for the development of habits of observation, of self-reliance and of accuracy; it should not have as its sole object the development of skilful, practical workmanship, highly important as this is. Three questions considered by the committee were (1) Are the customary methods employed in the teaching of domestic subjects those best calculated to yield the maximum educational and practical benefits? (2) What is the most advantageous sequence and grading of subjects in the teaching of housecraft? (3) In what way may science be most effectively taught in relation to domestic subjects? Under the heading, "The Educational Value of the Customary Methods Employed in the Teaching of Domestic Subjects" we find this remark—"It would be often desirable, for example, that food should be cooked in a variety of ways, both right and wrong, so that the girls may themselves see and appreciate the effects of wrong methods, and not merely rely on the statement of the teacher. The deliberate spoiling of small portions of food on particular occasions may afford a valuable illustration of the working of cause and effect. Although the immediate aim of all practical lessons in cookery and other domestic arts is the production of a satisfactory result with a reasonable outlay of labour, time and cost, a sense of cause and effect must be inculcated if results are to be reproduced with confidence, and the fullest practical efficiency is to be obtained."

The use of foodstuffs for experimental purposes is sometimes criticized. The committee believed that this use, under proper guidance, is as legitimate as that of any other material in hand-work or experimental science. Under "The grading and sequence of domestic studies" we find the following remarks—"Adequate attention has not yet been given to the grading of the subjects or to the sequence of lessons in any particular subject of housecraft."

The committee had before them a suggestion that the present customary plan of specializing each year in one branch of the domestic arts should be discontinued, and that in its place should be substituted a carefully graduated course of housewifery or home science, which should include in each year's instruction:—

1. Elementary experimental science, specially arranged to lead to an understanding of domestic practice, and the laws of health.
2. Cookery.
3. Laundry work.
4. Needlework.
5. Other matters of domestic management not included under the above heads.

There has been a tendency in the past to introduce dogmatically, scientific statements at irregular intervals in attempts to "explain," say, a portion of a cookery lesson. Such unsystematic and unmethodical teaching of science is of little, if any, value. At the same time, special courses in pure chemistry, or physics of the customary formal academic type are unsuitable in elementary schools.

Further comments on this report are found in the two following numbers of Education, Nov. 7th and Nov. 14th:—

"It may be said at once that this Report reflects the utmost credit upon all concerned in drawing it up. The common sense character of the suggestions it contains, and the complete emancipation from the niggling influence underlying the questions which seem to worry some well-intentioned people—such, for instance, as whether domestic science is a real science or an art—will, to the minds of all true reformers, deserve the highest praise. If there is one branch of education which has been open, in a peculiar degree, to the charge against all connected with its administration of pedantic insistence on the letter in place of the spirit, it is the teaching of domestic subjects. . . . Most people who have had any experience will agree with the judgment passed in

the report, that in spite of the considerable advance made in recent years in this kind of teaching, much of it is still far too didactic. It is a singular fact that the teachers of practical subjects should be possessed by the vice which was peculiarly supposed to attach to the methods adopted by the theoretical professors, viz., that of pedantry. But the longer we live the more clearly we see that pedantry is not confined to one class of men. There are, on the one hand, practical pedants, and, on the other hand, theorists who teach their particular subject after the most practical fashion. . . . By allowing a child to make a mistake, and thus, by asking the why and the wherefore, to emerge successful from her ordeal, is to provide a most thorough and convincing course of education, a far more thorough and convincing course than can be provided by tons of theory. It would be well if this fact were better realized; until it is realized, any advances will be mere shallow veneer, or, in the old Scripture phrase, "bricks made without straw."

In Education, Nov. 14th, 1913, we find "Now, as was pointed out in Education last week, the chief difficulty in the way of improvements in the method of teaching domestic subjects in our schools has generally arisen from the attitude of the teachers themselves. Their lack of originality of ideas, their postponement till another day of all the processes of thought, which, though undoubtedly painful, do sometimes in the end repay a little exercise, their dependence on syllabuses drawn up for them by a central body, which is ignorant, like all central bodies, of the needs of their particular district, in short, their paralyzing conservatism towards anything new, has hitherto been the leading obstacle in the path of reform of method. It is, indeed, time that teachers of domestic subjects awoke to a living sense of their responsibility in this matter. . . . Anything more calculated to deaden the faculties of the average teacher than to have cut and dried schemes of work laid down for her guidance cannot well be conceived. The principle of the ordinary method in the past has been to make the child fit the syllabus instead of making the syllabus fit the child. And even if the centrally manufactured syllabus does happen, by a miracle, to suit the needs of the children in one district, there is no security that it will fit the needs of the children in another district, where the modes of life are entirely different. Therefore, in the interests of the development of resourceful capacity in the teachers, and also of the children's own welfare, the principle

laid down by the report is one that deserves the highest possible praise."

In Education, Oct. 31, 1914, a resumé is given of a paper read at the British Association, in Australia, on the Teaching of Domestic Subjects in Primary Schools. To quote—"Finally housecraft should be the subject to which cooking, serving, etc., are subordinate. The main difficulties in teaching housecraft are: (a) that the conditions in school are often too unlike those in the girl's home; (b) that the child has no adequate motive for her work, but the following may be appealed to—(1) the play motive, which is at present only made use of in young children, (2) the desire to 'help' and to do 'real work,' (3) the love of simplified or primitive life. We want to arouse something of the boy scout attitude."

In the same magazine there is a note of a postponed experiment on continuous attendance at the cookery centres. The problem that is calling loudly for solution seems to be that of arranging a sequence of handwork and elementary experimental work, from the kindergarten up, for boys and girls. A friend told me of a primary grade she visited where the first half hour of each day was spent in the care of the room, plants, pets, with prayer and singing after. I was interested to find in Miss Harding's address, in the Ontario Educational Association Report for 1914, the same longing for sequence and co-operation. I would like to see a committee appointed to work in conjunction with a kindergarten and a natural science teacher to report on suggestions for a sequence of work and co-operation for rural and urban districts. On p. 1484 of the Technical Education Report, it says—"Dr. Robertson cited the schools of Winnipeg, which now have handwork all the way from the kindergarten to the high school; he had not seen any better organized school system." We in Ontario do not want to be left behind.

Dr. Snedden, Commissioner of Education for Massachusetts, gave an address before the American Association of Home Economics in July, 1914. The next morning after this address was delivered, Dr. Snedden said he was not sure if he had made himself clearly understood, and that he wished to protest against the use of technical terms in elementary or even secondary schools. He did not approve of the terms Household Science or Domestic Science, but would choose a term denoting achievement, such as home-making. Seven years ago a social worker, who found city children coming to her who could say the words "carbohydrate" and "protein," but

who were far too young to understand what such words signify, said, "I might as well go into the homes of very poor people and say I am a student of social research."

Technical Education Report, p. 51—"Certain departures from the usual form of organization have been tried. In Aberdeen the girls devoted three weeks continuously, before they left the elementary school to practice and training in domestic subjects. Other cases in rural districts are reported, p. 51, and also p. 777.

Mr. Blair, of London, said the whole of the elementary school system was permeated with a strong influence of recently developed high social purposes finding scope for its activity in medical inspection, fresh air treatment and greater attention to feeding, cleanliness and future occupation—"care committees" have been organized—see divisions of work, p. 477. P. 1753—"The tragedy of the schools is the disappearance of pupils aged twelve or thirteen years; children, who have long wearied of the idle hours spent on the back seats of the school room while the teacher was engaged with other classes, and to whom the book and unsolved problem suggest work unaccomplished, leave school at this early age with little more than a habit of listless idleness and dislike for books and everything associated with school. Many parents complained of shipwreck and failure of their children, and the charge of inefficiency is often brought against the educational system without any precise knowledge of where the fault lies."

P. 1991—"Domestic science is compulsory for all girls and all teachers in Switzerland; it is not compulsory in France, but the government took it up and have courses for teachers also. It has been compulsory in Switzerland for fifteen or twenty years, and the results on the children have been most satisfactory. Domestic science teaches them to reflect and think for themselves, and thus helps their general development." P. 1992—"Domestic science trains the judgment; what contributes most to efficiency is ability to distinguish the important from the unimportant, and domestic science teaches the exercise of judgment, close observation and doing things without waste, all of which are important factors in education. Girls should be taught the duties and responsibilities of life and made to feel that thoroughness and dependability are qualities which have a wage-earning value; they can only learn the value of responsibility by taking it." P. 2059—Among others of the general conclusions of witnesses, the seventh is—"That industrial training and technical education, that is to say vocational

education, should be given from the kindergarten right up to the highest grades of the high school."

In Education, Nov. 6th, 1914, the article on "National House-keeping the Teacher's Opportunity," ends with "The curse of war may sometimes be made a blessing in disguise; and now when minds long stagnant have been rudely stirred to the necessity of retrenchment comes the chance of the domestic economy teacher to make her work of a present and future value more real and permanent than she could otherwise have hoped." Also in this magazine we find a report of the meetings of the British Association on Education, in Australia. It says:—"Science is teaching the world that the ultimate court of appeal is observation and experiment and not authority; she is teaching it the value of evidence; she is creating a firm and living faith in the existence of immutable moral and physical laws, perfect obedience to which is the highest possible aim of an intelligent being . . . If for the Fall of Man, science comes to substitute the Rise of Man, it means the utter disintegration of all the spiritual pessimisms which have been like a spasm in the heart and a cramp in the intellect of men for so many centuries."

PHYSICAL TRAINING AND HYGIENE SECTION

RURAL MEDICAL SCHOOL INSPECTION.

BY MRS. D. C. WILSON, PARKHILL.

It is a well known fact that the strength of a nation lies in the mental and physical efficiency of the individual. That the nation is at last beginning to appreciate this fact, is made manifest by the widespread interest taken in the health of the children of our schools and educational institutions, and which is expressing itself to-day in the call for medical inspection of the schools of our Province, and to this phase of our awakening I intend to devote this paper, dealing particularly with the work in the rural schools. Rural schools are meant to include the country school, the village school and the town school.

From the information obtained by the inspection of our city schools, it was plainly evident that a large number of the pupils were physically defective, and the matter coming to the attention of the Women's Institutes, the question naturally suggested itself.

Is this true also of our own children in the rural schools?

The North Middlesex's Women's Institutes were the first to act in this matter, and the start was quite modest, consisting as it did of an inspection of a country, a village, and a town school. Encouraged by the results of this first inspection, showing as it did the urgent need of the work, the next inspection was more ambitious, including 18 country schools, besides village and town schools; in all some 821 pupils were examined; 433 of these were found defective. Many of these defects were of a serious nature.

The data thus obtained pointed to the conclusion that a large percentage of rural school children were suffering in like manner, and there was need of immediate action.

Consequently a resolution asking for the establishment of a system of Rural Medical School Inspection, and a grant to help carry on this work, was adopted unanimously by the Provincial Women's Institute Convention, and copies of this resolution were

sent, with a circular letter, to the 750 Institutes in Ontario. The officers were asked to bring the matter before school trustees, mayors, reeves, medical health officers, and other influential men and women for their approval and signatures, and then to be forwarded to the Member of Parliament for the district. Thus the work at once became a great movement.

The interest taken in the work was shown by letters from all parts of the Province, asking for information and requesting inspections. There were so many requests for inspections that it was decided to hold test inspections, or as they were called Demonstrations on Medical School Inspection in each of the seven (7) different health districts of Ontario, and to have the demonstrations in centres where local institutes would be responsible for the work. The Provincial Board of Health placed at the disposal of the school boards and women's institutes the services of the district health officer for a limited time, and the institutes' branch of the Department of Agriculture provided competent nurses to work with the doctors. The local women's institutes organized and arranged the transportation, and when the nurse visited the homes paid for the extra services.

The foregoing scheme which has been briefly outlined with the district health officer and school nurse has been found to work out well in the rural districts. The organization of medical school inspection throughout the rural districts in Scotland under the Scotch Education Department has been built up in this same way.

No scheme for Rural Medical School Inspection would be effective without the work of the nurse going into homes as she does, and giving the mothers personal instruction which could be obtained in no other way. Not only that, but there is no question that many of the children would not be treated at all but for the constant supervision of the nurse.

So far these demonstrations have been held in five different centres: East Lambton, North Middlesex, East Simcoe, Consolidated School at Guelph and Rockwood School, and Manitoulin and St. Joseph Islands.

No one seemed to suspect the conditions of the rural schools before medical inspection was introduced when we were confronted with the astounding fact that of some 3,216 pupils examined in these demonstrations from 60 to 80%, and even as high as 90% were found requiring medical and dental treatment. Enlarged tonsils, defective vision, adenoids, defective hearing, and

bad teeth showed what a handicap the majority of the pupils carried in their struggle for an education, truly a terrible state of affairs in a Province which boasts of its model school system.

Now, while these demonstrations have proved of the utmost importance in drawing attention to a vast amount of child suffering of a nature, and to an extent previously unsuspected, the inspection in itself is of little value unless treatment is provided to remedy these defects.

The results of these demonstrations and the steps taken by the parents to remedy the defects revealed in the children are partially shown in the following extracts from letters of teachers and others:

1. "The magnitude of the inspection prevented us from having the Follow-up work done as our nurse had to leave at once. Nevertheless, the inspection has not been wasted by any means. Many others have said that they had never given these things a thought before.

"However, the results may pan out, it was education in a high degree.

"The mothers' meetings alone were worth it."

2. "The pupils' reference cards for the children of ——— school have been sent to me as Miss ——— successor. I find that five children have had dental attention, and one child has had her tonsils removed. A number of the children are reported as having defective eyesight. The reason that this has not been given attention to may be that consulting a specialist requires quite a deal of trouble and expense."

3. "I received the reference cards which were used at the medical inspection. I have found out those pupils who have been attended to. In this school I find 19 out of 26 were attended to, the other seven not being cared for through poverty or negligence of parents. I was sorry we did not have medical inspection in our school last year, as we found it a great help the year before."

The letters which have been quoted are but three of many expressing similar ideas. The teachers by their sympathy and active help have been a great factor in the success of the work.

We are all more or less familiar with the trouble involved in consulting a specialist, to say nothing of the price, so that it is not to be wondered at that many of the parents neglect the matter entirely, even when advised by their family physician to do so. He, as a general rule, is not prepared to give special treatment in

these cases because many of the defects, other than bad teeth, are of a special nature.

Now, having found that a certain percentage of school children are not and will not be attended to, the state or its local representative the education authority has to consider what is to be done for the defective child. Certainly, he can not be permitted to go untreated: the adoption of such an attitude would mean waste of much of the large sum of money now being spent on his education.

The recent regulations on medical school inspection, issued by the Department of Education, suggest the best means of organizing the work in rural communities through the co-operation of school boards, and any other organization in the district which is interested in the welfare of the children. They also state that whenever an inspection is arranged for treatment must also be provided for.

One solution of the rural inspection problem is found in quite a new organization, the School Treatment Centre or School Clinic.

By this term is meant arrangements for the treatment of certain defects of school children, either in special premises or in premises set aside at certain times for this treatment, the treatment being organized in co-ordination with the school authorities, and usually under their direct control.

School clinics can be arranged so that they are available to the neighbourhoods they are intended to serve, and the hours so arranged as to be convenient for parents and children without unnecessary waiting.

A house or other building in town or country can be altered at small expense so as to provide a waiting room and a treatment room, which are all that are necessary in the simplest form of clinics.

School clinics have arisen during the last six or seven years as special organizations to meet the special needs created by medical inspection.

Great Britain is ahead of continental countries in the matter of school clinics with the sole exception of dental clinics. Germany has almost 100 of these, and many of them are very elaborately fitted up. In this short paper, there is only time to say a word on two school clinics we visited last spring in Europe. There was one dental school clinic in Geneva, Switzerland, which seemed easily adapted to our rural conditions. Every Thursday was set

aside for the country children, and that day was always a very busy one. The clinic is maintained by the Canton of Geneva.

Perhaps the best equipped clinic in Great Britain is at Dunfermline, organized by the Carnegie Dunfermline Trust Company, and while we were struck with the elegance of the buildings and the evidently unlimited supply of funds at their disposal, we were impressed with the simplicity of their whole system. In this clinic one of the main duties of the nurse was that of a teacher. Mothers' classes were held, and mothers were taught by practical demonstrations how to give proper care to the children under school age, so that they would be better fitted to attend school when the time arrived.

It is certainly a long call from one of the best equipped clinics in Great Britain to our own humble beginning in one of the rural townships of Ontario. Nevertheless, I would like to describe one little school clinic which was held in connection with these demonstrations.

The very fact that this school clinic was in great part voluntary showed that the heart and soul of the community were in the work. A citizen allowed us the use of two large front rooms which had just been freshly papered and painted for the clinic. One room with a fire place was used as a treatment room, the other was divided by heavy screens into a waiting and rest room. A specialist was called in and the local physicians assisted him, giving their services free.

Twelve children from town and country who had been specially selected by the school nurse and teachers as needing immediate attention were examined and nine selected for operation.

If any one had the least doubts about the advantages of medical school inspection that one small clinic was sufficient to banish them all, for not only was it plainly to be seen that the children were greatly benefited by the treatment, but the parents were extremely grateful for the clinic which enabled some of them to obtain treatment for their children which otherwise would have been impossible.

One of the most striking points of advantage shown was that the children were able to remain in their homes while having all the advantages of the city, that is to say, the school nurse and the clinic.

The educational possibilities of the clinic (or Treatment Centre) are very great. The parents learn from doctor and nurse how

much ill health can be saved by a little trouble. Parental responsibility is very much increased, and even the children learn that they themselves share the responsibility of their growing up well and strong. There is no doubt that school clinics will hold an important place in any scheme for Rural Medical School Inspection.

Medical inspection has not only discovered many children in our rural schools who require medical treatment, but it has also discovered many who free from defects are still tired, listless, and inattentive owing to lack of proper nutrition.

Of 821 children examined in the second inspection, 25 were reported lacking nutrition. If children are to use their brains in daily tasks their bodies must be well fed.

When medical inspection in the rural districts of Scotland revealed this same trouble (lack of nutrition) among the school children, the medical school's officers sought the cause and finally concluded that the main cause was cold lunches supplemented by a hurriedly prepared evening meal at home by thoughtless parents who did not realize the effect of careless food supply to a growing child.

Dr. Gordon Lang, medical school officer for the county of Inverness, Scotland, tells how the difficulty has been overcome by the people in the Highlands. He says, "In practically every country school in this district a hot meal of some sort is given. Some give soup and bread; others soup alone; and many more give cocoa and milk, with or without bread. "The money was raised by concerts, entertainments, subscriptions from generous farmers, farmers' shooting tenants and others." No doubt in the case of the Highlands sheer necessity brought it about. Long distances and bad roads made it impossible to go home."

Referring to school lunches in an Ontario country school where medical inspection was carried on one teacher says, "The average school lunch consists of sandwiches (ham, salmon, cheese or egg)—sugar, cookies, cake, pie, and tarts.

"Raw fruits—oranges, apples, bananas. Some carry milk to drink, but most eat without drinking."

There is little doubt that a hot bowl of soup, as in Scotland, and less variety would be wiser feeding for our school children.

Already Ontario teachers here and there are encouraging the older girls to prepare a hot dish. The Manitoulin medical inspection report says that Billings Women's Institute is agitating for soup kitchens. But a little organized effort is needed to supply

every school child as Scotland is doing with one hot noon dish.

While at the present time, and for a long time to come, the best means of combatting the physical defects of the children will be proper medical and dental treatment, nevertheless, the goal we aim at is the natural elimination of these defects by proper modes of living, and the one great means of accomplishing this almost ideal state is, as far as the rural children are concerned, through medical inspection of schools with the employment of district health officers (if possible), district school nurses and school clinics, teaching the parents and children how to live, the kind of foods they require, and how best to take care of that wonderful and intricate machinery, the human body, without which no individual can exert to the fullest extent those powers of mind and body with which nature has endowed us.

The lesson taught to us by the present war should impress on us more strongly that it is the care of the children to-day that will count in the future, and we hope our government through their departments will sustain medical suspicion of the rural schools of this Province by a grant to the school boards of the various municipalities that will enable them to make medical inspection a practical and permanent feature of our educational system.

It is almost universally observed that any reform, either social or educational, needs for its success the support of public opinion, and in this case we need even more than good wishes, we need the active organized support of the community. It is here that the Educational Association can be a pillar of strength to the movement for the various teachers going back to their schools and occupying the position they do in the life of the community can influence both parents and pupils in a way that will banish many an obstacle and make smooth the path of medical inspection to the hearts and minds of the rural population of Ontario.

THE PLANNING AND EQUIPPING OF A MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL.

BY A. STYLES, BRANTFORD.

The intention is to plan the erection and equipment of a new Manual Training School in a locality where there are no others, its use more for public school pupils rather than for high school.

It is not the intention of the writer to attempt to dictate, or set a standard in planning and equipping Manual Training Schools which may be used by school boards. Far from it. There are too many obstacles in the way. In fact, it is almost impossible to begin to think of planning school buildings because of the one great obstacle, Finance. You see one's actions are restricted at the outset by being limited to a certain outlay, of ten times the most essential features in planning and equipping a school have to be sacrificed for lack of funds. The cost of material and labour will differ greatly in certain places, building sites in some towns and cities will vary considerably in value, hence, as I said before, it is not the intention to propose and plan a school, which may be taken as a standard to work upon. The writer, however, hopes that there may be some good features embodied in his plans which may even be of some help to those planning and equipping a Manual Training School.

My first thought would be of the building itself, where it should be erected, of what material and how it should be built. Its size, accommodation and its equipment.

We are going to plan and build our school rather from the "Ideal" point of view, not worrying so much, and being hampered by its possible cost, yet we will try and plan our school and still be reasonable, so we shall assume that our "Board of Education," backed up by a broad-spirited and far-seeing public, will not put the obstacle of finance and narrow views in our way. You may say that is impossible, but it is not so, for I do believe there are men with the broad spirit, men who love our boys and girls, men with a national spirit, and men who look at things not always from the dollars and cents aspect and are willing to sacrifice for the welfare of the nation's youth.

These are the views I take, and those are the reasons why our school may cost a little more than some others, and why we will call it our "Ideal" Manual Training School.

Of course, if we have unlimited funds to draw upon and no restrictions to curb our desires, we could build the most perfect school possible to build. Still we can plan our school, think of its cost and produce a building which would be a credit to us, a credit to the architect, and a school which would meet the needs of the community and the expected students. I should like to feel proud of our school and not ashamed of it. I should like to think that our citizens felt its need and were willing to back it up and push it along, willing to make sacrifices for it, realizing the benefit it would be to the youth of the country, then the work of planning, the thought and labour devoted to its erection would be a pleasure and inspiration.

The Manual Training School, dealing with the industrial arts, its atmosphere, one of work, one of accomplishment, and of activity well placed, we would see to it that it were well built, and its architecture good to look upon.

We would combine in our Ideal Manual Training School, beauty, convenience, and stability.

In our planning, we should feel that our school building of all our public buildings should be the most important. Its grounds and its surroundings we would make an example of taste, beauty, and simple dignity both in form and design.

Of course one of the most important things to be considered would be the appointing of a committee, possibly of the better qualified of the trustees, and an expert architect. Also the advice of the manual instructor most certainly should be included, for he is the one deeply concerned in the matter. The results of his work depend greatly upon the planning and upon the accommodations of the school to be built. We should then proceed in the selection of our building site, displaying great care and judgment. Of course we should have to be governed to some extent by local conditions. Our lot should be extensive enough to allow for good space around the building, it would possibly need to be large enough to provide for future extensions. While our school work would deal to a large extent with industrial life, yet we should not look for our location in a cluttered factory district, we would rather convey our industrial atmosphere to where the trees and flowers grow, to where the sunshine could look upon us and make our work a pleasure and joy. Yes! in the planning of our "Ideal" Manual Training School we should surely utilize all the benefits of nature; they would not add to the material cost but would

rather lessen it, for undoubtedly a building site would be cheaper in a locality not needed for commercial purposes. Also the natural advantages of a location in the more beautiful parts of our city where the trees are allowed to live, would add greatly to the beauty and value of our school and assist in the general scheme at no extra cost, as I mentioned before.

Our site selected we would then have our architect draw up plans according to our needs and according to the accommodation required for our school. The building should be of sound construction, and material of brick or stone. Its front should be back 30 or 40 feet from the street. The architectural appearance of its front one of beauty and sound lines. The general appearance of the building should be one to command more than a passing glance. It should be of two storeys and a basement. Our building would be constructed to give a full share of light and sunshine, exposed more rather to the effect of the morning sun, for in the warmer months we are better able to stand the heat of the day in the morning after a good night's rest, than in the afternoon when the sun is usually more intense and ourselves possibly less able to bear it after the exertions of the forenoon. We would build our basement say two or three feet above the ground and so get as much light and sunshine possible. A side entrance would be provided to admit of lumber and supplies, also for the admittance of pupils. The lavatories for both teacher and pupil would be in the basement and provided with all modern conveniences, including wash basins and towels, also drinking fountain. The teacher's lavatory would be accessible both from the basement and the upper storey leading down from the front entrance. The basement would contain also a well built lumber rack, the material of which would be iron piping, easy to construct, clean and sanitary. This lumber room would be partitioned off, the idea being one of neatness and security, also the pupils would not have access to it during recreation hours. If at all possible I would have installed in the basement, some light gymnastic apparatus for the use of the pupils during play hours.

The cloak-room would be situated at one end between the two lavatories. The lumber rack and a store room for the janitor at the other end. In the centre and to one side would be the furnace and coal bin, absolutely shut in and as near dust-proof as possible, the coal being received through a chute from the outside.

On the same side between the furnace and lavatories I would have built a drying kiln; it need not be a large one, say 6 ft. long, 3 ft. wide and about 3 ft. deep, constructed of galvanized iron and connected with steam pipes, built to open at the top and front. It would be found to be a most convenient affair, its cost adding practically nothing to the total and very instructive to the pupils. The heating system of the school would be by steam radiators. The ventilation is of great importance in any school; it may be controlled by windows, and also by ducts running under the floor and opening below the furnace to permit of the entry of cold air. Slides can be used to control the cold air running through to the furnace base. The necessary moisture may be obtained by placing a pan of water in the air space of the furnace.

If the windows of all the rooms were lined with weather stripping it would prove of value in conserving the heat in the winter, and no trouble when once attached.

We can now take the upper or main floor which we are to use for our woodworking room. What we have to consider in it, is the spacing and lay out, apart from the equipment. Placed at the front end and in the centre would be the instructor's room or office. On either side I should have other rooms, one fitted up as a students' library and teachers' draughting room, the other room would be for finished models and drawings, etc., both opening from the main room and also accessible from the office, the doors of such rooms having the upper panels of glass, semi-opaque.

Along one side of the main room and under the windows, I would place lockers for the use of the pupils according to the expected classes, allowing each student as much space as possible. One locker for each class and partitioned up into individual receptacles for each boy, with lock attached and the name of the school from which the boy comes, plainly affixed upon the locker front. (Lack of sufficient locker space is usually a feature in most schools.)

At the other end of the room and to one side, would be placed the instructor's demonstration bench, and the seats for the pupils.

Also the stairs leading up from the basement and continuing up to the top floor would be at this end of the room and used by the pupils in entering the workroom, the front entrance stairway being used for the instructor and visitors only.

The blackboard of slate would be framed and built upon standards and set forward in front of the back stairway, and would be more or less of a portable nature.

At this end of the room also, would be partitioned off a small space for staining and wood finishing purposes; a little time could be profitably spent in fixing up this room; it should be well ventilated and provision made for the especial heating of it, sometimes a higher temperature being needed than in other rooms.

The floors of this main room and the upper floor should be made as near sound proof as possible, and should be of the best seasoned hard maple. We must not forget our stock cupboard, and in our planning we must allow sufficient space on one side of the room for it, and you will agree with me that a well planned and well filled stock cupboard is essential. We have now taken in the general plan and lay-out of our main room, and will refer later to its equipment and furnishing.

Our next move will be to the upper room or top floor, which we are planning to use for our draughting room. While it is not absolutely necessary, I feel that our "Ideal" Manual Training School should have its separate room for drawing. Put boys who are attending the school for the first time, or even at any time, at drawing, and ask them to use the same room and bench which they use for woodwork, with the tools and equipment around them, and what do you get? Fingers into mischief, thoughts wandering, and longing desires to get to what they call "real work." To the average active boy with his natural love of making and wanting to do things, its almost a punishment to ask him to draw under those conditions.

I say it is much more difficult to get them to concentrate their minds upon the drawing lesson, unless the work is done in a separate room.

Then, again, the benches being flat and in a horizontal position, and the pupils having no seats to sit upon, their work is made much more difficult, in fact, in some cases under my own supervision, where the pupil is short of stature, it is almost impossible for the little fellows to reach over far enough to do their work, and that should not be, for all should receive an equal chance. Another point in favour of a separate room for draughting, is the fact that the natural dirt and dust of the workshop is not conducive to the longevity of drawing boards and instruments, etc.

I think also that the students would perceive a different atmosphere or tone, in a separate draughting room, one that would compel thoughts of the finer, the more beautiful and artistic things of life. The room would be decorated in pleasing tones, permanent objects of interest, sample specimens of work made in the school and beautiful pictures upon the walls, pictures of fine buildings and of industrial life, all these things would tend to stimulate a liking in the pupil for his work, and the teacher would undoubtedly get much better results than if the drawing and manual work were done in the one room. Of course a pupil could do necessary sketching in his note book in either room.

As part of the equipment of the draughting room, my first thought would be good, practical, and adjustable drawing tables, individual for obvious reasons, stools would be provided. Reasonable sets of instruments would be purchased, also Tee squares and set squares of the best material. A complete set of type solids, large ones for demonstration purposes, and a smaller set for the students to handle. The blackboard would be fitted up so that the teacher could demonstrate the use of the various draughting instruments, etc., with some degree of accuracy. The lighting of this room should receive careful thought, and, if possible, light should come from above as well as from the side windows.

In referring back to the woodworking equipment I should plan for a class of 25 pupils, not that I have any desire for a class so large, for I think its utterly impossible for a teacher to give much individual attention to his class if it be one of more than 15-20, but provision should be made for the larger number for emergency sake. That has led us to the bench problem, one which most instructors beg to differ upon, and I don't blame them either, for there are a thousand and one to choose from, and according to the manufacturer all are better than the other fellows. We are, however, compelled to pick out one kind. I do not care to advocate or praise any particular make of bench, neither do I wish to belittle or speak against any. They all have some good features. There are a few things to look out for, however, in the choosing of a suitable bench. It should be of sound and seasoned material, its vises should be of the quick action variety, should have a good even grip, and of good extension. The bench should be of solid structure, free from any liability of vibration when securely fastened to the floor. These few features and some other good ones, can be obtained in a bench now on the market, and that is the bench our new school should have, for the best are none too

good when you start buying tools, and no blame can be attached to the tools when a pupil fails to produce good work.

The tools to go with each bench should be of the best possible selection, and in the choice of which should be considered first, the make, a reliable firm of tested and know worth.

The number of tools for each boy's personal use should be restricted to as few as possible, only the most used and essential being allowed, for the less tools a pupil has to look after personally, consistent with the requirements of his work, the less worry and trouble to both teacher and pupil.

In planning for tools I should divide them into three general classes: 1st, the laying out tools; 2nd, cutting tools; 3rd, general or miscellaneous tools.

The laying out tools used for measuring and marking in general use are the rule, try square, bevel, knife, marking gauge, and framing square. One of each would be provided for all benches with the exception of the framing square. The cutting tools would comprise for the same, one Stanley Jack plane and one smoothing plane. Also four chisels from $\frac{1}{4}$ in. to 1 in. Those would comprise what I would call my smooth-edged tools. For my toothed tools, a backsaw would be all that is required for each bench. I have used both steel and wood rulers, and prefer a steel rule for service and wear, but it must be clearly graduated and of a dull or brushed finish, to be used for benchwork only, and not for drawing purposes. A bench-hook and a brush will complete our individual equipment. The tools required for general purposes will be of a larger variety, and should be kept in proper tool cabinets which could be locked up when not in use.

It is hardly necessary to go into detail as regards the tools for general use, suffice it to say, that the manual instructor should be quite capable of making out a complete list of the best possible tools obtainable. There are some remarkably good "quick action" Yankee tools on the market, and I believe the instructor would be wise to include in his "general" outfit of tools those possible to get. It is a good thing to train our boys up to use and appreciate these time-saving tools, in fact your well planned equipment would not be complete without them.

We are fitting out our boys in our manual training and technical schools for their future welfare, and we should get the best equipment and the most recent ideas in tool craft to better fit them when they leave our schools to compete and earn their own living.

I should also make provision in our new school for sheet metal or rather art metal work along light or decorative lines.

Not an extensive equipment would be required, perhaps the following would suffice:

A special work bench filled up for that purpose with its equipment of files, shears, punches, drills, hammers and mallets, etc., and a soldering outfit. This would not add much to the cost.

To some extent also, machinery and mechanical tools should be provided, not to take the place of handwork, neither to make of the boy a machine, but that machinery and its uses will form a concrete part of the well trained mechanic and student of industrial subjects and life.

A manual training course commencing in the third book and giving a boy three years at it, should provide a little time for him to realize the possibilities of machinery and of that greater degree of accuracy and accomplishment which he can derive from it, of the fact also, that in the everyday industrial life men are compelled to use machines both for commercial and competitive demands, and for the absolute need at times in the construction of things.

Therefore I am going to suggest at least the following machinery and machine tools to be used in our new Manual Training School. I would have a band-saw, motor driven, two or three good turning lathes, an emery grinder with buffing attachment, and power drill. Also a Stanley mitre-box would be found an extremely useful tool. The instructor would see to it that the machines and tools mentioned would be used only by pupils who had received a fair training in hand work, and never before. The advantage to students entering the collegiates and the factories, after becoming familiar with the use of these machines and tools, would be inestimable, hence, I would consider the machinery portion of our equipment. These I would have installed in my main room at the back end and partitioned off.

The decorations of this room should be of some moderate shade, the walls finished smoothly, and as little liable to the catching of dust as possible. Some good pictures of trees, timber, machinery and tools, and a few well made models would be all that is required.

In closing my remarks I should say that for obvious and some previously mentioned reasons I shall refrain from quoting size of building and cost.

Circumstances and local conditions would determine that.

CONTINUATION SECTION

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

By W. H. STEWART, ACTON.

Ladies and Gentlemen,—We are met to-day in session of our own special department, and although our attendance may not be so great as that of some other departments, yet what we represent is of sufficient importance to demand our closest attention, and wisest thought.

The Continuation School System has long since passed the experimental stage, although its history has not covered a period of more than fifteen years. The need for it was so great and so widespread that it has taken its stand rapidly and firmly among our educational institutions.

The large number of young people completing the public school course, and looking with longing eyes upon further privileges well within sight, and yet in very many cases just out of reach, led to the introduction of this phase of our educational machinery.

Many a parent would gladly have sent his children to a high school, or to a collegiate institute, but on account of distance, loss of time, expense, and dangers, both physical and moral, felt that the strain financially, mentally, or of both working together, was more than he could suffer. Therefore, hundreds of aspiring girls and boys had to check their longings, and limit their ambitions, and settle down to nurse the thought that they were being denied opportunities which were as dear to them as their daily food.

Thus they were obliged to content themselves with humdrum ordinary labour, and go through life with the depressing feeling that they could easily have been fitted for higher spheres in life.

We infer, then, that previous to the organization of continuation schools, an advantage was given to the neighbour boys and girls whose fathers belonged to the wealthier class. To see these whirling off to some neighbour town to attend high school, would be an additional source of discontent to those not so highly privileged.

To meet these disadvantages, continuation classes were introduced in connection with public schools, where the number of students, who had passed the entrance examination, made it desirable and practicable. Many of these classes soon developed into what are now known as continuation schools. These schools are at present so widespread in the Province, that secondary education is, I presume, within reach of any youth.

The advantages of this system are evident. There is the remaining at home. This is a most desirable feature. Home life is with many too short, and an effort should be put forth to conserve it. There is the saving of time. Many a student to attend high school was obliged to leave home very early in the morning, and to arrive home quite late in the evening. This extra time may now be used in study or in helping in the home. This loss of time, I think, must have tended towards the formation of idle habits, which we well know are very detrimental. There is the avoidance of the dangers of travel. Fussy people travelling daily, and especially in numbers, are likely to become reckless, and the parents are in constant concern. Then there is the company frequently met with around stations as they wait for the train, and also on the train, which may very seriously counteract the good influences of the home, and of the school.

The continuation school has a salutary effect upon the public school pupils. There is the ever-present incentive to reach the high school. There is also the continual influence of more matured boys and girls. Also the continuation schools are helpful to the larger high schools and collegiate institutes. In the first place, they help to prevent overcrowding in the lower forms of these schools. And in the second place, they prepare students for the higher forms of the schools. Added to these advantages is the matter of expenditure which is always a consideration.

At first there was no special supervision of these schools, the public school inspector having been given the authority to visit them during his semi-annual rounds. So speedily did these schools manifest their importance that the department felt it necessary to appoint a separate inspector. Mr. Cowley, who is now chief inspector of the Toronto schools, was chosen for the position. He had charge of all the continuation schools of the Province, but so rapidly did the schools increase, that Dr. Waugh, now chief inspector of public schools, and Mr. Mills succeeded him. Dr. Waugh was followed by Mr. Hoag, the only one whom I have not had the privilege and the profit of meeting in our school at Acton.

That the better informed citizens of the Province recognized the value of these schools has been seen in the tenacity with which in some cases they have held on to them under very adverse circumstances. It was expected there would be opposition, and there was opposition. Some thought they would be very expensive institutions. In regard to cost, I believe it can be readily shown that the continuation school is one of, if not the least, expensive institution for secondary education that we have. One man may be principal of both the continuation school and the public school. This is obviously a saving in men, and in money.

One building will do for both. Also one caretaker is sufficient. At this point I would say that the Acton School Board employs a man for the whole year (52 weeks), and pay him \$10 a week. This enables the board to secure a good caretaker. We think ours is the best in the Province. In addition to his ordinary duties of heating, cleaning, etc., he is always present to make necessary small repairs, to do painting and varnishing, and in short, to do a hundred and one little things about the school. The board is thus relieved of a great amount of minor expenses and loss of time. The grants from the Legislature, and from the county are so liberal that the amount levied upon the municipality for maintenance is very small indeed.

In some cases the necessity for a new building, or an addition to the old building, arises. Opposition again, of course, becomes active. But as far as I have learned, the usefulness of the school is so manifest that the majority usually favour the additional expenditure.

A difficulty with which we have had to contend, has been the desire on the part of some students to have a good time travelling on the train to and from some neighbouring high school. If the students fail at an examination he has a plea to present to his parents, and if the father be not in sympathy with the school, off he goes. In some cases actual misrepresentations of school conditions are presented to the parents, and without consulting the teacher from whom the true state of affairs may be obtained, the student is permitted to have his way. These students are likely to praise the new school to which they have gone, and to speak untruthfully concerning their own home school to which they should be loyal as good citizens. Many, I think, have looked upon the continuation school as a small affair, and cannot do the work done by the high schools. As far as examination results are con-

cerned it seems to me that continuation schools have been just as successful as high schools. The principal difference is in name rather than in work accomplished. All will admit that the personality of the average continuation teacher will compare very favourably with that of the average high school teacher. These difficulties grow fewer and fewer as we persist in faithfully discharging the duties devolving upon us, and pursuing the even tenor of our way.

I shall now offer a few suggestions. We are engaged in preparing young men and young women for Christian citizenship. Let us continually show by our demeanour that we are deeply interested in them. Let us show them by our constant cheerfulness that we enjoy the good work. Don't be blue. It is not the characteristic of the true British soldier. Remember, that like begets like.

Never in the history of this Province have teachers had a better opportunity to develop patriotism than we have at present. The great struggle going on in Europe is causing the different parts of our Empire to be drawn more closely together, uniting us in a common cause.

We are constantly having presented to us praises for what Britain has done, and for the high ideals which have been developed in the minds and hearts of the British people. In our teaching of patriotism, we must be careful to keep the students from hating our enemies, but to hate oppression, dishonour, and the military spirit.

I think every school should have a literary society. It affords an excellent supplement to the ordinary school work in preparing the students for the duties of life.

We should go slowly in the matter of school-room decoration. Purchase one or two of the copies of the masterpieces in art, and add to those as finances will permit.

Well, then, the continuation school is here to stay. We are a part of it. We are assembled to consider our calling. I hold it to be one of the grandest occupations to take young minds from thirteen to eighteen, and unfold to them the wonders of the universe in nature, science, and art, and the other great themes with which we have to do. It is a privilege, and claims our highest thought and energy.

I trust that our sessions this year will result in stirring us to still greater activity and interest in the great work we have undertaken to perform.

AGRICULTURE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

BY GEO. A. CLARK, DRAYTON.

Agriculture has long been looked upon by some people as more or less of a menial occupation. Work suited to any person possessing a strong body, arms, and legs, but not necessarily any head, that in order to farm all one has to do is to plough and sow, reap and mow, and team a little grain and hay, and drive a few cattle, sheep, and hogs to market. A farmer is not supposed to know anything. He is an old "hay seed" with a slouch hat, flannel shirt, dairy overalls and high top boots. A kind of a simple sort of fellow that "well bred (?) " people may make fun of or use to their own profit or purpose. And the sad part of it is that many of our farmers have a very little higher opinion of themselves than that pictured above. They look upon their work as a drag. They hate it, but they cannot get away from it. Their children inherit this feeling of discontent and littleness, and long to get away and to forget their rural relations so that they can mingle in the society of the elect. They are not going to be "hay seeds" or "sod busters" working out an aimless existence on the farm. Thus rural districts are being depopulated and city districts are being congested. People would live on one meal a day, or will even depend upon the soup kitchen rather than go to the farm and earn a living good, at least, for three square meals a day.

This condition of affairs has become serious, and though the conditions of rural life are improving rapidly, and a great many agriculturalists are coming to themselves, and are finding out that they are really free human beings rather than slaves. That they are capable of learning things and of becoming more free. That agriculture is the name given to a number of associated industries, each of which require both head and body. But many farmers are still in the old rut, and have been there so long that they are convinced that there is no use to try to get out.

The above describes in a measure the condition of affairs on the farm to-day. What are we as servants of these rural districts doing to improve their condition? We have been accused of educating the boy off the farm. We do not plead guilty to that charge but we must admit that we have not been doing what we should have done to help him to remain there. Some boys come to our

schools for a year or so to continue their studies a little beyond the public school grades. But they go back to country life little better equipped to raise its industries up and place them upon a sound scientific basis. They have little inclination to investigate or to experiment. Then, too, a great many of our students return to rural districts as teachers, and some town or city students find positions as teachers in the country. These have no message to the farmers, their wives or their children save, perhaps, instruction in reading, grammar, arithmetic or geography, etc. They cannot take their places as citizens. Those from the city, town or village long for Friday night so that they can get out of "hades" for the week-end. What influence can they have? How can they add dignity to the farming industry? They tend to make the farmers and their children more dissatisfied. Many of the teachers who were from rural sections succeed in a measure. They win the esteem and confidence of their pupils, and of the parents, and very often of the young men of the neighbourhood. Some of these are persuaded to give up teaching to become the head or, as some say, the neck of a farm home. But even they are not equipped for their work as they should be. They should have had a course in the science of agriculture. Thus in order that our schools may best serve our districts we must try to equip those, at least, who return to rural homes with a knowledge of that subject.

The syllabus as outlined for high and continuation schools treats with the different associated industries, and the students who have taken the work cannot help learning that agriculture is no menial occupation, but a dignified profession. That agriculture is a science, and being a science opens a large field for investigation and experimentation, and when such teachers or students return to the country the farmers will not appear to them as "hay seeds" or "sod busters," but as honoured professional men.

One year and a half ago I had the extreme honour of being permitted to introduce the subject of agriculture in the Drayton Continuation School. All of the students of the first two farms are taking the work. Many of them belong to rural homes while some are from village homes. Early in the year we began to plan to hold a school fair, and when the friends of the farmers' institute heard of our plans they sent a deputation to me offering financial aid and suggesting that we permit the public schools of the vicinity to share the advantages of the fair. So we published a list of proposed competitions, and four rural schools came in with us. The

second Friday in October we held our fair, which was a success in every sense of the word. The students of all ages were enthusiastic, and as plans are now well under way to hold our second fair this fall, great preparations are being made by the pupils, and we expect nearly half a dozen other sections will join with us. I have here a few copies of our list of competitions and rules for this year.

But you will ask, is the "school fair" all of agriculture? Admitting that it is very interesting, the students are also interested from an information standpoint. The science of the subject appeals to them. They go home and talk about the lectures in agriculture. For example, one man had an orchard that had been running wild for years. His son was in our class in agriculture. He told his father about benefits of pruning, removing old dead wood—cultivation, etc., of that orchard, and of burning the rubbish heaps, which were mere harbours for fungus diseases in insect pests. The father was delighted and is making an effort to put that orchard in first class shape.

Another man had some spring wheat which he prized very highly. It had a few seeds wedged off on front, rounded on the back, dark brown or black in colour. He thought little of it until he was told that these were the seeds of bind weed.

I do not wish to multiply illustrations, but I wish you to picture these boys or girls going back to the country as teachers, or as farmers. Will they not be of value to the community? Will they not in a kindly way inspire the farmer and the farmer's family to take an interest in their work that they never had before? They can go to a farmer's dairy barn and compliment him on the excellence of certain cows, and explain to him the principles of best dairy barns, and how to build up a choice dairy herd. Illustrate how little trouble it is to weigh the milk of each cow, and keep a record of the product of each.

They can visit his poultry yard and talk interestingly on that subject, ask him of his manner of feeding for laying and fattening, and give hints at the same time as they themselves would be gaining valuable information and experience. They can walk over the farm and talk drainage, and perhaps persuade the farmers to take advantage of government aid in having drainage surveys made of the land. They can talk rotation of crops, and methods of crop improvement. In this way they will interest the farmers and the farmers' boys, and they will feel that they are living as they never

did before. But you may say, if you or one of your student teachers should go on to a farm, and start telling the farmer what he should do or should not do, he will soon say to himself, "well there is a young upstart who thinks he knows all about agriculture." In reply to that, I would say that no one but a fool would go to a farmer in that attitude. When I go to a farmer I go to seek information, and if in gaining that information I can incidentally drop a hint that he can make use of I am pleased. I try to train my students in the same way. It is a poor farmer, indeed, if we cannot learn some lessons from him.

By producing teachers who are truly interested in the science of agriculture, I feel that we shall be able to introduce agriculture more successfully into our public schools. In this way and by giving the boys and girls who return directly to the farm a little elementary knowledge of agriculture.

I am endeavouring to cause Drayton Continuation School to better serve the community in which it is situated.

HOW TO MAINTAIN DISCIPLINE IN SCHOOL.

BY C. WARD BUTCHER.

It is not my purpose to attempt to treat the subject of "Discipline" at all fully, but to give a few ideas which may be helpful to some. Little benefit can come to us, as teachers, from a paper on such a subject unless it is followed by a full and free discussion through which we can learn, not only from those who have had years of experience, but also from those of less experience who still have difficulties in discipline which they have not learned to overcome.

For several years we have shunned this subject at conventions and teachers' meetings. We seem to think that if we mention the subject, others will get the impression that we do not know how to discipline. Yet many teachers fail in the profession because they are unable to control their classes. In fact, more fail as teachers through the lack of ability to discipline than through faulty academic or professional training. At times, all of us feel that discipline consumes more nervous energy than it should.

If discipline is such an important factor in education, and we shall take it for granted that it is, we should seriously consider ways and means of improving ourselves as disciplinarians.

Discipline is maintained in at least five ways—by the silent influence of the teacher or suggestion, by the cultivation of a class-spirit, by keeping pupils busy during their study-periods, by co-operation with the parents and, lastly, by punishment.

Discipline in a school-room should depend more upon suggestion than any other influence. All pupils are such great imitators that, if we are careful, we can do a great deal by our manner towards maintaining order. If we go around the room quietly, if we speak quietly and politely to the pupils, they are likely to cultivate the same habits. How often when our classes are noisy, we try to talk loud enough to be heard instead of waiting until they get quiet or else talking in a quiet tone and letting those suffer who do not hear. Some classes are quite noisy, and, if you investigate, you will probably find that the teacher is noisy himself or suggests disorder by his manner.

Not only should we suggest by our manner, order and not disorder, but we should be most careful also that we do not suggest

by our words or tone that the pupils do wrong. Let me make my meaning clear by mentioning a few well known maxims of teaching and giving concrete examples.

1. "The teacher should be definite."

The teacher should know his work, teach with a confident air, and give definite instructions when assigning work, giving dates for test examination or giving dates when synopses of books for supplementary reading *must* be handed in. Such definiteness and decisiveness gains the confidence of the pupils, and give them the idea that the teacher is master of the situation.

2. "Make few rules."

Many of you have heard the story of the teacher who, when he came to a new school, put up a list of rules that he had used in his former school. In this list was one that the pupils should not climb up on the woodshed. When he came back after dinner the first day, he found nearly all the boys on the shed. They had never thought of doing so until the rules gave the suggestion. This illustrates the fact that rules suggest to a pupil that he do the opposite. Of course we must have a few rules, but we should make them only as required.

3. "Do not threaten."

When the teacher says, "if you talk again, I shall punish you," he suggests to the pupil that there is a possibility of his talking again, but, if the teacher says quietly, "kindly do not talk," he suggests that the pupil do not talk.

The subject of threatening will be mentioned again when "punishment" is discussed.

These concrete examples illustrate the fact that we are largely responsible for lack of discipline in our classes, because we create the impression that we expect the pupils to be unruly instead of acting as if we expected every pupil to do what is right.

The cultivation of a school spirit is a great aid to discipline. We should aim to give our pupils the idea that the school or class is theirs and not ours, that we are paid by their parents to teach them, and that we keep discipline, not because we take pleasure in preventing their having fun, but because it is necessary so that they can learn, and so that we can do that for which we are paid. We should try to get our pupils to feel that they, not we, are injured by wasted time, and that they do not hurt us when they do wrong, but that serious misdeeds injure the good name of the school. A couple of illustrations will explain clearly what is meant.

Some teachers make pupils apologize to them when they do wrong, thus letting the pupil know that he has bothered the teacher and causing him to feel that the school is the teacher's and not his. If the teacher feels that a pupil has done something to bring discredit upon the school, let him have the pupil apologize to the school.

A number of boys at school once made some dice and shook them for pen points and other small articles. The teacher heard about it and asked all the boys to stay in a few minutes after four. He asked all those who had not shaken dice to stand. These were allowed to go home. He asked each of the boys who remained, when, where, and for what he had shaken dice, and wrote down the facts as they were given. Then the boys were sent home, without knowing whether they were to be punished or not. After some days these boys were asked to remain after four. The teacher told them that he thought that they would not have done this if they had realized what a bad name it would give the school in the town and neighbouring towns, if the people heard about it, and that he hoped that they would hush up the matter and let as few know about it as possible. These boys received no further punishment. The teacher can help to cultivate and strengthen this school spirit in several ways.

1. By his attitude towards the pupils and the school as has been mentioned.

2. By encouraging school sports.

3. By having the school get pins and select colours if they have not already done so.

4. By never telling tales out of school himself, and hinting to the pupils that they should not do so either. Generally inexperienced teachers tell outsiders what happens in the school. Often they might better put it in the newspaper. When the teacher does this, the pupils do so too, and the parents, as a rule, do not know any better than discuss the teacher before their children. Though this applies to the teachers in the public school more than to us, our actions are often discussed by the parents in terms, not too flattering.

The third means of maintaining discipline, mentioned above, is keeping the pupils busy during their "spares."

In continuation schools where there are more classes than teachers, it is often quite difficult to keep order in the class with the

study period while the other class in the same room is being taught. This difficulty can be overcome partly by assigning definite seat-work for the study period. The time-table should show this. Classes may be given all their monthly examinations in their study periods. This can be done by arranging the time-table so that each class has one long study period each week. By giving the classes this examination period on different days in the week, considerable spare time is profitably occupied, and the teacher is able to hold his examinations without using recitation periods.

Co-operation with parents is necessary, but it requires very great tact on the part of the teacher since he must neither play the part of a tale-bearer nor yet give the impression that he is not master of the situation. If the pupils get the idea that the teacher tells what goes on at school, the school spirit is destroyed, and he becomes their enemy. If the parents get the idea that the teacher is afraid of them or of the pupils, he might as well resign.

Parents should receive information regarding the progress of their children. This can be given best by means of regular reports. If a parent asks the teacher concerning the progress of his child, he should receive as accurate information as the teacher can give. It may not always please him, but he will be unable to criticize the teacher if the child fails. If a parent asks how his child behaves at school, tell him that all the pupils at school behave. What happens at school should not be told until reported officially.

But when shall we report a pupil's misdeeds to his parents? This depends upon the teacher, the pupil, and the parents. If the parents are reasonable and anxious to have their children succeed, we can co-operate with them readily. But, if they are indifferent, or have little control over their children, we might as well not report a pupil's misdeeds until we are determined to suspend him if he does not reform. Then we should write the parent, inviting him to come to school, if possible. When he comes, we should tell him plainly in the presence of the pupil what has taken place. Ask the pupil if your statement of the facts is not fair. Then tell the parent that, if the pupil doesn't do what is right, you will be compelled to suspend but that you didn't wish to take such extreme measures without letting him know all the circumstances and giving him a chance to use his influence.

If the teacher is to co-operate with the parents, he must have their respect and confidence. In order to have this, he must be as careful of his actions outside the school as in it. Some teachers

say that it is nobody's business what they do outside school hours. The public thinks differently, and makes it very much its business. "A still tongue makes a wise head," applies most fittingly to a teacher. If he says as little as possible about his work, the public gets the impression that he knows his business but, if he talks too much, the public is apt to lose confidence.

We must strive to win the respect and confidence of the parents because we cannot have good discipline in school unless we have the respect and confidence of the pupils. This we cannot have unless the parents respect and trust us.

I have put punishment last in the list of means of maintaining discipline, not because I feel that it is hardly necessary, but because it must be used when other methods have failed. Many have a theory that punishment isn't necessary. If we were perfect and the pupils were perfect, there would be no need, but neither the pupils nor ourselves are perfect, so there must be punishment—a sort of necessary evil.

I believe that Comenius hit the nail on the head in the "Great Didactic," when he said that punishment must be impersonal, that is, punishment must be so administered that the pupil will associate in his mind punishment with the offence, and not with the whim or anger of the teacher. But how is punishment to be administered to have this desired effect?

Before attempting to answer this question, let us consider how we very often cause our pupils to associate in their minds the punishment with our spite or anger.

We threaten and tell them that we will punish if a certain offence is repeated. But it is repeated, and we are in good humour and we let the pupil off with another warning. The next time that the same pupil does exactly the same thing, we may not be in good humour, we get angry and punish him. The pupil feels that he has been treated unfairly, that he was punished, not because he did wrong, for he had been let off several times for doing the same thing, but because we were in bad humour. If we strap this pupil, and, if he cries, show that we are sorry that we punished him, or if we tell him to stay in a certain time after four, and when four o'clock comes, we repent and let him go, we lead him to believe that we did wrong in punishing him. In these and in other ways, we are apt to make our punishments personal and to give the pupils the impression that we punish to get even with them for what they have done that does not please us.

How, then, can we cause a pupil to associate in his mind the punishment with the offence?

Commenius gave the answer—make the punishment impersonal, punish like a machine. Dr. Embree once said that he could strap a boy with a smile on his face. He meant that he had no personal feeling in the matter, and considered himself as an “instrument of justice.” Let me illustrate by a concrete example what is meant. Suppose that your general punishment for trivial offences is keeping the pupils in after four. Instead of saying crossly, “Stay in after four,” say quietly, “John, you will kindly remain after four.” If you say, “stay till four-thirty,” you must not let him off at four-twenty-nine because, then, you make the matter personal. If four-thirty was a just punishment, you have absolutely no right to change it.

But there are boys who are not influenced by ordinary simple punishments. Often a quiet, friendly talk after school is the best way to reform such boys. Do not scold him but talk kindly to him, ask him if he likes school, if he is trying to bother you, etc. You can generally make a bargain with him that he try to do what is right. Watch him as little as possible to give him the idea that you trust him. Few boys will break a promise when placed on their honour in this way.

If a boy is stubborn or shows that he is anxious to cause trouble, keep him at noon or after four until all the other pupils have gone. Then tell him what he has done that convinces you that he deserves punishment. If he is a big boy, especially if he is in the third form, it is often wise to give him a choice of punishments—a strapping or a certain definite number of days' suspension. If he chooses the former, strap him coldly, without emotion. Then treat the matter as settled, never refer to it again in school or out of school. He did wrong, he is punished as he deserved, hence the matter should be settled.

The writer of this paper suspends or straps about one pupil a year for offences committed in his classes or against the general discipline of the school but uses these extreme punishments freely when pupils are sent out by the assistant.

No treatment of the subject of punishment would be quite complete without a reference to “scolding.” We nearly all scold at times, though we know better, so it will be sufficient to remind ourselves of a few reasons why we should not do so.

1. Generally we speak above the natural tone and thus create disorder.

2. It is not pleasant for either teacher or pupils.

3. It wastes a great deal of time and seldom does any good.

4. It fails to create the idea that the school is the pupils' since the teacher shows personal annoyance.

5. It generally gives the pupils the impression that bothering the teacher, and that he is hardly master of the situation. They really enjoy getting the teacher a little angry because they know when to stop to escape punishment.

So far this paper has dealt almost entirely with the work of the individual teacher in maintaining discipline. In closing, let me give a few loosely connected ideas upon the relationship between principal and assistant. Each must support the other, neither showing anything but approval of the other's actions. The assistant should never try to run the school, and the principal should support the assistant. When the assistant sends a pupil to the principal, he should receive such punishment that he will not be anxious to come again. If the principal feels that a pupil does not deserve punishment, it seems best that the assistant let the pupil off. The principal can talk the matter over with the assistant and then tell the pupil that, as the assistant is willing, he will let him off without punishment. In this way the principal doesn't apparently disagree with the assistant. The assistant should not suspend a pupil from her classes, but should send him to the principal and let him settle the matter.

Sometimes a boy is rude and saucy in the assistant's classes, and is sent from the room. In such cases the principal may discuss the matter freely with the pupil until he sees that he has acted in an ungentlemanly manner. Often, then, the pupil will be quite willing to apologize to the assistant and agree to do better. If the assistant will accept such an apology in the proper spirit, such a pupil will, in all probability, be one of the best behaved in the school afterwards. While a teacher should never ask a pupil to apologize to himself, it seems right for a principal to suggest that he apologize to some one else.

But you may urge that, inasmuch as we are human, we cannot be so cool and self-controlled. Of course, it is very difficult to keep control of our temper, yet, if we are to control a school, we must first control ourselves. Then we can almost sum up in the one word—self-control the necessary qualifications of a good disciplinarian.

SIMPLIFIED SPELLING SECTION

THE PROGRESS OF SPELLING REFORM.

BY JOHN DEARNESS, M.A., LONDON.

The outbreak of the war in Europe checkt the progress of the movement in the British Isles for the simplification of English spelling, and prevented the execution of plans for another joint conference with friends of reform in the United States and the Overseas Dominions. The membership, however, of the British Society continues to increase, and now numbers, including some East Indians, considerably over two thousand activ members. Had it not been for the war it is likely that the petition addrest to the Right Honorable the Prime Minister of Great Britain and Ireland to appoint a Royal Commission to report on the reform of English spelling would have been presented. The petition has been widely signed; and supported, as it will be, by such influential men as Lord Bryce, Sir William Ramsay, Sir Frederick Pollock, Sir James Murray, and other equally eminent publicists and literati its prayer will doubtless be granted when the time is opportune for its presentation.

The British Society desired the co-operation of prominent educationists in the Dominions. I think the response from Ontario will be satisfactory. The petition forms lying on the table bear, as you can see by examination, many eminent names. As might have been expected from the polyglot conditions in the schools of Alberta, the names of nearly all the school inspectors in that Province are on the petition.

The secretary of the British Society communicated to us the following message from Lord Bryce:

“Sooner or later the question of reform in spelling will hav to be faced, and the sooner those who recognise its importance think out the difficulties it presents, the better. In traveling about the world, and especially in traveling thru such eastern countries as China and Japan, I hav been greatly struck by the immense benefits which would accrue to British trade if English were made.

by bringing spelling into accord with pronunciation, an easier language for foreners to learn."

In England, as in Canada, the people are evidently having their difficulties with the overcrowding of the curriculum, for in another message from Mr. Goldstone, M.P., similarly communicated, that gentleman says:

"In the teaching of children I have come to the conclusion that very much valuable time is wasted in teaching the intricacies of English spelling. The curriculum is now so extensive that it would be considerable advantage to divert some of the time now required for English spelling to subjects which would allow fuller scope for the cultivation of the initiativ and observing faculties of children."

The Simplified Spelling Society of the English-speaking peoples, with hedquarters at 1 Madison Avenue, New York, has diligently carried on the propaganda by the distribution of literature, and the publication of the *Bulletin*. Within the last nine months the college faculties in the United States and Canada, which officially permit the use of, or hav adopted in their official publications, some measure of simplification of spelling according to the rules of the S.S.B. has increased from thirty-three to eighty-six. In the same territory the periodicals, including dailies and magazines, using the first list of simplifications or a longer one, are number'd by the hundreds.

THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE

THE ONTARIO TEACHERS' ALLIANCE—ITS AIMS AND CLAIMS.—AN ABSTRACT.

BY L. E. EMBREE, M.A., LL.D., TORONTO.

The Ontario Teachers' Alliance has established its right to a place in the sun, because of what it has already done towards accomplishing its aims. The Alliance has helped to frustrate the efforts made by school boards to lower salaries by dismissing their whole staffs of teachers, with the object of re-engaging them, or of engaging others at lower salaries.

In other cases the Alliance made teachers aware of conditions that existed in places where school boards were trying to treat teachers unfairly.

The Alliance had asked the press to discountenance the "state salary" request, found a few years ago in most advertisements for teachers, and the press had responded generously, so that very few advertisements now ask applicants to state salary.

But, perhaps, the most important work done by the Alliance was the preparation of a publication containing statistics of great value to teachers, and relating to every public and separate school in the Province. This publication,—*Schools and Teachers*—is revised up-to-date every year, and is sent free of charge to every member of the Alliance. The Department of Education has dealt most liberally with the Alliance in helping to finance "*Schools and Teachers*," when the value of the statistics was recognized. (Quotations from advertisements in the press were read giving a number of instances in which "*Schools and Teachers*" would be helpful to applicants in making clear to them the conditions where vacancies occurred.)

We claim that there is no conflict of aims between the Ontario Educational Association and the Ontario Teachers' Alliance. They merely approach the same problems from different points of view. The Association seeks primarily to advance the interests of educa-

tion in the Province, and along with that advance must come improvement in the status of the teacher. The primary object of the Alliance is to advance the interests of the teacher, and in proportion as the teacher is relieved from financial anxiety, and his tenure of office becomes more secure, so will the interests of education be advanced.

We claim, further, that if the Alliance has not achieved all its aims, the cause of failure lies with those teachers who withhold their support from any project that does not directly and immediately benefit themselves, and whose first question is: "What can the Alliance do for me?"

I plead for the recognition of a bond of brotherhood between those who have won the higher places in the profession and do not feel the necessity for the practical aid of the Alliance, and those who are still in the battle line where they are exposed to attack. I urge, especially, the teachers of Toronto not to assume a self-complacent attitude, not to "live and lie reclined on the hills like gods together, careless of mankind," but to become active members of the Alliance, rally to its support, and strive to make the organization worthy of the best that the teaching profession of the Province represents.

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